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1817

MEMOIRS

OF THE

CONNECTICUT ACADEMY

OF

Arts and Sciences.

VOL. I.—PART I.

NEW-HAVEN,
PRINTED BY OLIVER STEELE AND CO.

1810.

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PREFACE.

THE design of forming a Society, which might combine the efforts of literary men in Connecticut, for the promotion of useful knowledge, was suggested early in the year 1799. A few gentlemen in New-Haven attended a meeting at an invitation given; and a sketch of the principal objects of such an Association was communicated, together with the outline of the proposed Society, which was named "The Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences."

At a meeting on the fourth of March, the Gentlemen, who had associated, adopted a number of regulations, as bye-laws for their government; and elected a number of gentlemen in various parts of the State to be Members. At a subsequent meeting, certain fundamental articles were adopted as the Constitution of the Academy, by which were prescribed the terms of admission to membership. In October following, the Academy, on petition, obtained from the Legislature the Act of Incorporation, which is subjoined.

The Academy meets annually on the fourth Tuesday of October, for the choice of its Officers, and holds stated meetings on the fourth Tuesday of December, February, April, June, and August. The Officers are a President, Vice-Presidents, five Counsellors, a Secretary, Treasurer, Keeper of the Cabinet, a Committee of Publication, and Corresponding Secretaries.

One considerable object proposed by this Association, was to collect for publication a Statistical Account of the State of Connecticut; and to the accomplishment of this object they have directed their attention and exertions. On the first of January 1800, they addressed a circular letter to every town in the State, containing the subjects of inquiry arranged under thirty-two distinct heads, and requesting answers to their inquiries. This letter was printed and distributed. In a subsequent address, the Academy urged an attention to the subject of those inquiries, and suggested a plan, by which they sup-

posed the labor of furnishing correct answers might be greatly facilitated. This business is still in progress; and nearly thirty papers containing answers to the above-mentioned letter, have been received.

But this object is necessarily temporary and local. The main design of the Institution is more widely extended. At its commencement, a scheme was drawn up, reported, and approved, in which the attention of its members was invited to every method of improving the science, arts, and happiness of their country, so far as the general state of its concerns, and their own leisure, would permit. Knowledge, both speculative and practical, was here, in all its parts, recommended to their attention, as the great field, in which they are requested to labor for the common benefit. No limit is prescribed to the excursions of the mind, or to the employment of observation. The elegant pursuits of literature and art, are left equally open to investigation with those, which are more severe. In a word, it was intended to allure the ingenious, attentive, and learned, to every public effort, which might be beneficial to their fellow men. In compliance with this design, several papers on philosophical subjects have been presented to the Academy. Among them the following have been selected for publication. They constitute only part of an intended volume; and are sent out in boards, that they may be conveniently preserved without injury, until the volume shall be completed.

AN ACT

To incorporate the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences.

WHEREAS literary Societies have been found to promote, diffuse and preserve the knowledge of those Arts and Sciences, which are the support of Agriculture, Manufactures and Commerce, and to advance the dignity, virtue and happiness of a people: Therefore,

Be it enacted by the Governor and Council, and House of Representatives, in General Court assembled, That Timothy Dwight, James Dana, Zephaniah Swift, John Allen, David Daggett, Jesse Root, John C. Smith, Isaac Beers, Nathaniel Smith, Elijah Munson, Josiah Meigs, Enoch Perkins, Jeremiah Atwater, 4th. John Barker, Elias Shipman, Noah Webster, jun. Simeon Baldwin, Elizur Goodrich, Obadiah Hotchkiss, jun. Timothy Pitkin, jun. Theodore Dwight, Abraham Bishop, Ashur Miller, Stephen Titus Hosmer, James Hillhouse, Jeremiah Wadsworth, Pierpont Edwards, Isaac Mills, Eli Whitney, John Davenport, John Bowden, Bela Hubbard, Jonathan O. Moseley, Jonathan Sturgiss, Elizur Wright, Jeremiah Townsend, jun. Jared Mansfield, John Marsh, Nathan Perkins, Levi Hart, John Treadwell, Oliver Ellsworth, Jonathan Trumbull, and Eneas Munson, and their associates, be, and they hereby are formed into, constituted and made a body politic and corporate, by the name of "*The Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences*," and by that name, they and their successors shall and may have perpetual succession; shall be capable of suing and being sued, pleading and being impleaded, in all suits, of what nature soever; may have a Common Seal, and may alter the same at pleasure; and may also purchase, receive, hold and convey any estate, real or personal; provided that the annual income of such estate shall not exceed one thousand dollars.

2d. *And be it further enacted*, That the said Academy may, from time to time, elect a President and a Keeper of Records, which Keeper of Records shall be sworn to a faithful discharge of his trust; and such other officers as they may find necessary or convenient; may elect additional members, provided the whole number of members

resident in this state shall never exceed two hundred, nor ever be less than forty. And the said Academy may make bye-laws respecting the number, qualifications and duties of their Officers; the mode of election and admission of members; the time, place and manner of holding their meetings; and the number necessary to make a quorum, and all other bye-laws which they may deem necessary for the due regulation of said Society, not repugnant to the laws of the state or of the United States; and may annex reasonable pecuniary fines and penalties, for the breach of such bye-laws, not exceeding ten dollars for one offence.

3d. *And be it further enacted*, That the first meeting of said Academy be held at the State House in New-Haven, on the fourth Tuesday of instant October.

4th. *And be it further enacted*, That this Act or any part thereof, if found inadequate or inconvenient, may be altered, amended, or repealed.

A LIST

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bondage; but was not permitted to go farther north than mount Nebo, in the land of Moab, over against Jericho, just upon the borders of Judea, and this but a short time before his death.

It is very evident that Moses had never before seen that country, because he was directed to ascend the mount, and take a view of the lands destined to be the residence of the Israelites—a circumstance that plainly indicates his former ignorance of the country, which could not have been the case, had he ever dwelt in Uz, to the north and east of Judea; for in that case he must have passed through this country.

Nor is it at all probable that the writer of that book would lay the scene of it in a country of which he was ignorant. Every circumstance tends to prove that the writer knew the country, its climate and productions; and the frequent mention of snow, ice and frost in Job is the highest evidence that the author had lived in a region where these substances were common and well known. If we suppose the writer to have lived in Judea, or in the northern parts of Arabia Deserta, the situation of Uz, he must have seen snow and ice every winter; but Moses probably had little or no knowledge of them. In Midian and Egypt, where he had spent his days, they rarely occurred; and in the five books, supposed to be of his writing, there are scarcely two or three references to snow or frost. In the 31st chapter of Genesis, Jacob is represented as complaining to Laban that he had served him twenty years, enduring drouth by day and frost by night; but this was in Padan-haran, to the northward of Jerusalem. In Exodus xvi. 14, the manna in the wilderness is compared to hoar-frost; and in the 6th chapter, a leprous hand is compared to snow. But in all the acknowledged writings of Moses, there is not the least evidence that ice was ever seen in Egypt, except in the time of the ten plagues, and in the form of hail. The silence of those early records, on this point, is no small argument, that the climate of Egypt was then as warm as it is at this day. Hail has been sometimes seen in that country, as it is in many other parts of the

world where there is no weather cold enough to congeal water on the earth.*

Instead therefore of proving that snow and ice were formerly common in Midian and Palestine, the frequent mention of these substances in Job, is almost conclusive evidence that Moses was not the author. That book, which is an excellent description of human nature, was unquestionably written by some person, either in Uz, or the northern parts of Judea, where ice, frost and snow were then, and are now, annually seen on the mountains. "If I wash myself in snow water, and make my hands never so clean," says Job, chapter 9th; which is a description that would not answer for Egypt or Midian,† but answers well to the greatest part of Judea. "The sweet influences of Pleiades," mentioned in the 38th chapter, allude doubtless to the spring rains, which fell in Judea about the rising of that constellation, which, in Pliny's time, happened near the vernal equinox, but which, fifteen hundred years earlier, must, by the precession of the equinox, have happened about the first of March. This circumstance answers well to the climate of Syria, but not at all to that of Egypt, where the rising of that constellation was the most sickly and disagreeable time in the year. The former and latter rain, mentioned also in that book, indicate that it was descriptive of the climate of Syria and Judea; for the success of agriculture did then, as it does now, depend entirely on the autumnal and spring rains. This division of rainy seasons however did not exist in Egypt; it was used only in Syria and Italy, and perhaps in Greece. Every circumstance that occurs to my view, in regard to the book of Job, tends to prove that Moses could not have been the author; and most of the Jewish Rabbins have been of this opinion. Certain it is, from internal evidence, that the scene of it was laid in a country much colder than Midian, or the champaign country of Pales-

*See an account of a hail-storm in Africa—Hirtius Pansa de Bello Afric. 42.

† I speak of the Midian, near the Arabic Gulf, where Moses lived, with his father in law; not of Midian on the borders of Judea.

tine; for Herodotus, in Eterpe, expressly declares that no ice was seen in Egypt; and, in another passage, that the climate is subject to no variations.

Let us then attend to the process by which Dr. Williams attempts to prove a change of climate in Palestine.

He *presumes* Moses wrote the book of Job—that the descriptions of ice and snow refer to the land of Midian and Palestine, and therefore that the winter, in those early ages, must have been severe enough to freeze solid ice, which, he says, requires a temperature of about 25° by Farenheit. He has no meteorological observations for Palestine, but presumes the climate to be nearly the same, as to heat, with that of Egypt. Mr. Niebuhr's observations in Grand Cairo in 1761 and 2, make the mean heat of January 57, and of February 63—the coldest weather therefore he supposes to be about 49° by Farenheit. Hence, if Palestine and Egypt have nearly a similar climate, he draws the conclusion that, in modern days, "no ice or snow is ever seen in Palestine."

This inference is drawn from a very inaccurate view of the subject. The facts with regard to Palestine at this day, are these.

The whole country comprehended between Aleppo on the north, the Mediterranean on the west, and the barren plains of Arabia on the south and east, is divided into high hills, mountains and plains. Palestine on the south, is a level plain, and a very warm country. The thermometer in winter is seldom seen below 50°. If snow ever falls, it is speedily dissolved. In this mild climate, which extends along the Mediterranean shore, the orange, date, banana, and other delicate trees flourish, without injury from the winter's cold. Little fire is necessary for the inhabitants; instead of fire, which is sometimes wanted during the cool rains of winter, the poor people shut up their cattle under the same roof with themselves, in a different apartment, and receive heat enough from their bodies to make themselves comfortable. Such is the present climate of the plains.

But a great part of Syria and Judea consists of mountains, which are every winter covered with snow; and often the earth is covered, for months, to the depth of

several feet. The mountains from Aleppo to Jerusalem, are covered with snow every winter; and when the snow melts, the Jordan overflows its banks. This happens in March; but on some of the highest hills, as mount Lebanon and Akkar, the snow is seen, till the middle of summer. This was the fact in 1784, when Volney visited that country. See his Travels, from which these facts are extracted. This author further observes, that on the east of the mountains, the cold is more rigorous than on the sea coast; and at Aleppo, Antioch and Damascus, are several weeks of frost and snow every winter. The inhabitants of the mountains leave their habitations, which are buried in snow, in winter, and pass the season at Tripoli, on the sea coast.*

The principal part of Judea, or the Holy Land, lies on the east side of the mountains, and experiences snow, frost and ice every winter. What shall we say then to the assertion of Dr. Williams, that in Palestine, "snow and ice are never seen" in modern days.

In Syria and Palestine, wheat and barley are sown in autumn, about the last week in October; the time of the autumnal rains. Harvest, in the plains, is in April and May. On the mountains, it is in June and July. Spring crops are planted in March and April.†

Common winters therefore in Judea are mild in the plains, but cold on the hills. That country however is subject, like others, to severe winters, which prove destructive to men and vegetables. The poverty of the great body of the people, and the mildness of ordinary

* "Will a man leave the *snow of Lebanon*"....Jer. xviii. 14. Shaw, in his Travels, p. 362, says, mount Libanus, in winter, is covered with snow—and p. 363, that snow at Jerusalem in February, causes great rejoicings. He mentions that snow fell at Cairo, Jan. 10, 1639.

† If the *byssus* of the ancient Egyptians was really cotton, as the commentators on Herodotus assert, then cotton must have been the produce of Egypt, from the earliest times, as the bandages in which mummies were wrapped, consisted of that article....*Beloe. Herod. Euterpe.* 86. *Note.*

When Ezra returned from the captivity, and set about reforming the abuses of marriage among the Jews, he assembled the men of Judah and Benjamin, on the 20th day of the 9th month, and it was a time of great *rain*. This was about the 10th or 12th of Dec....*Ez.* x. 9.

winters, prevent the same preparations to defend against cold, which are made in more northern latitudes. In 1741—2, the winter in Syria was very severe; and that of 1756—7 sunk the mercury into the bulb, at Aleppo; multitudes of vines were killed, as were olives that had stood fifty years. Many of the poorer people perished with cold. In winters like that, I presume, ice is formed in the mildest regions of Palestine.... *See Lond. Mag.* 1764.

That ordinary winters were far less severe, is obviously inferable from Exod. xxxv. 3. "Ye shall kindle no fire throughout your habitations upon the Sabbath Day" —an injunction which had reference to all seasons of the year; and which could not have been given in a climate where fire was indispensable to the health and comfort of the inhabitants.

But the most positive evidence which can possibly exist to prove that the climate of Palestine has *not* suffered any increase of heat, for more than 3000 years, is the production of certain fruits in the days of David, which will not thrive in any but mild, warm countries; as pomgranates, olives and figs. The trees producing these fruits are so often mentioned in Scripture, that it would be idle to name the instances. They were in Judea in the time of Moses in the greatest abundance; for the spies sent to explore the country, returned with pomgranates and figs.....*Numb.* xiii. 23.

We know precisely the degree of heat necessary to bring these fruits to perfection: That is, a climate as mild as South-Carolina and Georgia. Figs and olives grow well in Virginia, says Mr. Jefferson, but are liable to be killed by frost. We then ascertain beyond all controversy, that Palestine, in the days of Moses, was as warm a country as South Carolina and Georgia are in this age.

The palm-tree furnishes, also, a most clear and incontestible proof of the same fact. This tree will grow and bear fruit, says Pliny, in the maritime parts of Spain, but the dates have not the fine flavor of those which are produced in Judea. In Europe, for instance in Italy, they are barren. In Africa they come to perfection, but

soon perish. "Judea vero inclyta est vel magis palmis," says that author. "Judea is particularly renowned for palm-trees or dates."....*Lib.* xiii. *Ca.* 4.

These trees were not introduced and cultivated first in Judea by the Jews. The Israelites, when they migrated from Egypt, found palm-trees in the neighborhood of Jericho, and in the plains of Moab, in all their glory. Jericho is called the city of palm-trees—Deut. xxxiv 3. and the word itself, in the Ethiopic, signifies a palm-tree....*Ludolf's Lexicon*, *col.* 37.

No man will be sceptical enough to deny a uniformity in the laws of the vegetable economy. We have then *certain proof* that Palestine, more than 3000 years ago, was a milder climate than Italy, milder than the south of France, as mild as the coast of Africa, at that time, and milder than South Carolina at this day.

Another remarkable fact is decisive of this question. The Jewish month אביב *Abib*, was named from the ripeness of barley in Palestine and Egypt, at that season; the word signifying fullness or ripeness from the *swelling* form of the grain. *Abib* answers to the latter part of March and the beginning of April, which was the time of harvest in the earliest ages. Now this is the precise time of harvest in modern days.*

The facts above enumerated solve all questions as to the ancient climate of Judea and Egypt. Frost, snow, and ice were annually seen on the hills and mountains of Palestine, and were perfectly well known to writers among the Jews; hence the justness of the descriptions in Job and other parts of the Old Testament. In hard winters, these phenomena must have been extended over the plains, along the banks of Jordan; and perhaps on the sea coast. But the plains in common years must have been very mild and warm. All this is precisely the state of the climate in Palestine, in the present age.

Confirmatory and decisive of this inference is the fact, that from the earliest records of history, the inhabitants of Judea constructed their houses with flat roofs, as they do at this day, on which they not only amused themselves

* See Shaw's Travels, p. 364, folio, and p. 430.—Niebuhr's Trav. Sect. xxviii. ch. 3.—Park. Lex. under אב.

during the day, but erected altars, offered incense, and performed other pagan rites to the deities of the country; and we have the express authority of the Scriptures to prove that as early as the days of Samuel, it was customary to sleep on the tops of the houses, as it is at this day. *See Deut.* xxii. 8—*Josh.* ii. 6—*Judges* xvi. 27—*Jer.* xix. 13—*Zeph.* i. 5—*Dan.* iv. 29—1 *Sam.* ix. 25, 26.

In winter, it was not unusual to kindle fires in Judea. Thus we find Jehoiakim sat by a fire in the *ninth* month, Chisleu, which answers to a part of our November and December....Jer. xxxvi. 22—and Dr. Russel informs us that at Aleppo, they begin to kindle fires about the end of November.....*Nat. Hist. of Aleppo, p.* 14. *Parkhurst,* 330, under כסל.

Dr. Williams proceeds to prove that the winters in Italy have, in about eighteen centuries, become warmer by seventeen degrees on Farenheit's scale. His proofs are, that Virgil in many places of his Georgics, has given directions for securing cattle and sheep from the effects of snow and cold—that Virgil, Pliny, Juvenal and Ælian speak of ice, snow, and the freezing of rivers, as events common and annual. But he observes, that in 1782 and 3, the mean temperature at Rome in January was 46°, and the mean of the greatest cold 42°, which is 17 degrees less cold than what is necessary for the freezing of rivers.

The Abbè du Bos, Hume, and others alledge, in proof of the same doctrine, the following facts: In the year of Rome 480, the winter was so severe as to kill the trees—the Tiber was frozen, and the ground was covered with snow for forty days. Juvenal describes a superstitious woman as breaking the ice of the Tiber to perform her ablutions.

> "Hybernam fracta glacie descendet in amnem,
> Ter matutino Tiberi mergetur."....*Sat.* vi. 521.

Horace also, says the Abbè, speaks of the streets of Rome as full of ice and snow. These authors, it is alledged, speak of these as common events. But, says the Abbè, "at present the Tiber no more freezes at Rome, than the Nile at Cairo."*

* I cite this from Hume. Ess. xi.

Dr. Holyoke mentions the description of the severe winter A. U. C. 536, in the second Punic war, when the siege of a town in Spain, near the present Barcelona, was obstructed by snow which lay for thirty days to the depth of four feet.... *See Memoirs of Am. Academy, vol.* ii. 70.

From these representations, it is concluded that Italy has now a much more temperate climate than at and before the Christian era. Let us examine this point.

Dr. Holyoke gives us the mean of the greatest cold at Rome, deduced from several years' observations, within the last half century; which is 33° 46, a little above freezing point. The greatest cold is stated at 31°. If we admit this statement to be correct, then Dr. Williams has stated the extreme of cold in Rome almost nine degrees too high; of course we must deduct *nine* degrees from his seventeen degrees of alteration, in eighteen centuries, which is a very material difference.

This we must do, and more. For Brydone in the winter of 1769—70, found the greatest cold at Rome in January to be 27°, a degree capable of covering large rivers with a thin coat of ice. That winter was perhaps colder than usual; but by no means of the severest kind.—At Naples, says Brydone, we had rainy weather; at Rome, it was clear and *frosty*. That winter then would at Rome produce all the phenomena of ice, frost, and snow, to answer the description of the Latin writers of the Augustan age.

If the mean temperature of the winter's cold at Rome is now about 33°, it is not more than eight degrees milder weather than in New England; for Dr. Holyoke found, by seven years' observations, that the mean winter temperature at Salem, in Massachusetts, is 25° 74.

I know not the position of the thermometer by which the observations at Rome were made. But I would remark that, if those observations were made in the city, they do not represent the general temperature of Italy. I found by numerous observations in New-York, that ice as thick as glass in our windows, was uniformly made at a mile's distance from the city, when an accurate thermometer in the coldest positions *in* the city stood at 40°. Such is the difference between the real tempe-

rature of an open country, and the artificial one of a city. The same difference will not run through the observations of the whole year, but it will amount to two or three degrees. I am inclined to believe this to be the source of great errors, in comparing meteorological observations in different countries.

If the ordinary winter temperature at Rome is near the freezing point, we are at no loss to account for the snow and ice of Italy in ancient times. In all countries, and in every latitude, hills and mountains are cooler than plains. This difference is according to the difference of altitude; but between Rome, in a plain, near the sea, and the Appenines, it cannot be less than from six to ten degrees. Thus while at Rome and in Campania generally, the weather is mild, and exhibits little or no ice, the whole ridge of mountains between Tuscany and Naples, that region of Italy which furnished the pasturage, and for which the directions in Virgil's Georgics were intended, is covered with snow, and experiences severe frosts. This was not only the fact in Virgil's time, but is so at this day. Mr. Arthur Young, a distinguished agriculturist, travelled in Italy in November and December 1789. In passing the Appenines, between Florence and Bologna, the first days of December, he found the hills almost covered with snow; and the roads, on some declivities, a sheet of ice. On the 26th of November, the weather was so severe as to freeze Cyprus wine, and milk burst the vessels that contained it. In Lombardy, he found the peasantry at night, sitting in a passage between their cattle, in the stables, to keep themselves warm; a practice resembling that in Palestine, already mentioned.*

It is well known also that the higher regions of mount Etna in Sicily, a far milder climate than that of Italy, are perpetually covered with snow.

That the descriptions of ice and snow, in the Augustan age, allude principally to the hilly country, is very obvious from the writings of Virgil, Horace, and Pliny.

* Young's Tour, Vol. i. p. 516. Dub. 1793.

Virgil, in his first Georgic, speaks of the Zephyrs dissolving the earth, and bringing moisture from the *whitened hills*.

Horace, in his ninth Ode, mentions deep snow on mount Soracte, in Etruria, about twenty-six miles north of Rome.

Pliny, in the nineteenth book of his Natural History, is more explicit on this subject. Speaking of the luxury of his days, he says, "Hi nives, illi glaciem potant; pœnasque montium in voluptatem gulæ vertunt."....
"Some drink snow, others ice; and the evil or scourge of the mountains is converted into a gratification of the palate." This passage leaves no room to question, that the ice and snow used in Rome were ordinarily brought from the mountains; where they were considered as a calamity; and the expression "pœnasque montium," clearly indicate that they were almost peculiar to the mountains.

Virgil directs the husbandman to plow in the first months in the year, and to pray for moist summers, and serene winters; for, says the author, the *winter's dust* increases the crop. This passage is no inconsiderable proof that the earth in some parts of Italy was not usually covered with snow in winter.

The winters described by Livy, when the Tiber was covered with solid ice; when the snow lay in the streets of Rome for forty days; and in Spain, was four feet deep for thirty days; when men, cattle and trees perished, were singularly severe, like our modern winters of 1642, 1709, 1741, 1780, which happen but two or three times in a century. Any man will be convinced of this, who attends to the description of them in the original authors. I find they happen in modern days, as frequently as at any former period. Scarcely three or four such winters are described in the whole history of Rome, down to the age of Julius Cesar; though many others happened, as may be collected from circumstances.

The severe winter of the year of Rome 354, is expressly declared by Livy to be a remarkable event. "*Insignis* annus hieme gelida ac nivosa fuit; adeo ut viæ clausæ, Tiberis innavigabilis fuerit"....Lib. 5. 13. He

calls it also " tristem hiemem ;" and it was followed by terrible pestilence. Nothing can be more clear, than that such a winter was an extraordinary occurrence. Without considering it in this light, the word " insignis" has no meaning ; and instead of proving the usual temperature of winter at Rome to have been severe, it is the strongest evidence to prove that the winters were *generally* mild, and the Tiber navigable in the winter months. Had this been a common winter, or any thing like it, it would not have been singled out by the historian as a subject of remark. This explanation is applicable to all the instances of cold winters, described by historians. Even the passage in Juvenal, if it proves any thing, confirms the opinion that the frost, in his days, was not ordinarily very severe. The circumstance of a woman's breaking the ice in the morning to bathe in the Tiber, indicates that the ice was usually thin and easily broken; and by no means admits the supposition of ice a foot thick, like that which covers our rivers. It supposes a thickness of ice which is often seen on the Tiber at this day, frozen in the night, and dissolved the next day.

All the Roman writers speak of severe winters by way of distinction. Virgil says, " sin duram metues hiemem"—if you apprehend a hard winter. And Horace attempts to dissuade Augustus from his design of resigning the empire, by describing the severe cold, snow and hail of the winter, which he represents as prodigies, and evidences of the resentment of the gods. The winter to which he refers was probably of unusual severity. I apprehend the great source of error on this subject has been, that the moderns have taken for representations of ordinary winters, those which were intended for a few rare occurrences. Certain it is that the common winters of Italy were not severe, but mild. This I will demonstrate by a series of evidence, drawn from the phenomena of the natural world, which cannot deceive us in regard to climate.

Pliny, in his Natural History, lib. 2. 47. has given us an account of the winds in Italy. Among other things he informs us directly that the " spring opens the naviga-

tion of the seas, in the beginning of which, Favonius, the west wind, mitigates the severity of winter, about the time when the sun enters the 25th degree of Aquarius. That time is the 6th day before the ides of February." This was the 8th day of the month, and this was accounted the beginning of spring. Virgil, in his 3d Georgic, confirms this declaration of Pliny, and speaks of the commencement of the rainy season, that is, the spring rains, about the last of January.

> ....." Cum frigidus olim
> Jam cadit, extremoque irrotat Aquarius anno"—

when cold Aquarius now sets and sprinkles his dews, at the close of the year. This refers to the old Roman year which ended the last of February, the month when Aquarius set. The name of this sign indicates that the season was *rainy ;* and the testimony of both these authors concurs, in proof that the winter was considered at an end, the beginning of February.

Aquilo, the northeast wind, began to blow, about the setting of Pleiades or the seven stars, which was near the 3d of the Ides of November, answering to the 10th day of the month....Pliny. lib. 2. 47.* This was the introduction of cool weather. The Septentrio, or north wind from the Alps, was the coldest wind, and blew mostly in December and January.

Severe winter weather set in about the last week in December. The halcyon days were seven days before and as many after, the winter solstice, when the kingfisher was said to tranquilize the sea. This period of mild or calm weather seems to have resembled our "Indian Summer," a period of fine weather that often happens just before winter. The fable of the halcyon days is no inconsiderable proof, that the winter did not set in with rigor till after the winter solstice.

* By the precession of the Equinoxes, that constellation now sets about three weeks later, or the first week in December. But our modern Calendar corresponds nearly with the Julian Calendar in Pliny's time. The name *Aquarius*, given by the Romans to the sign which the Sun passes in the midst of winter, demonstrates that rain and not snow, predominated as the characteristic of that month.

But the best evidence of the true temperature of the climate of Italy, and the course of the seasons, is that which arises from the time of vegetation. This is infallible evidence.

Pliny relates, Nat. Hist. lib. 16. ca. 25. that spring began with the blowing of Favonius. This time is expressly fixed to have been the 8th of February. Pliny calls it the "genial breath of the world." This author informs us that some vegetables germinated on the first blowing of this wind. "Primo favonio germinat Cornus, proximus laurus, pauloque ante Æquinoctium tilia, acer." The cornelian cherry germinates on the first blowing of the west wind; afterwards the laurel, and a little before the equinox, the lime tree and the maple.

In the fifth chapter of the 18th book, he says, "some persons prefer planting gourds about the first of March, and cucumbers about the nones," or middle of the month. In the 34th chapter of the same book, he says "Favonius begins the spring; it opens the earth, being moderately cool and salubrious. It directs the husbandman to prune his vines, to take care of his corn, to plant trees, to graft apples, and tend his olives."

Spring radishes, says the same author, are to be sown after the ides of February; but this plant, he adds, is so fond of cold weather, that in Germany it grows to the size of a *little boy*. Gardens are to be plowed, according to the same author, about the ides, the 13th of February.

Horace, Ode 4th of Book I. expressly says, that spring begins by the favor of Favonius, when the cattle no longer seek their stalls, the husbandman his fire side, nor are the meadows any longer whitened with frost.

These facts indicate a moderate climate, like that of the Carolinas and Georgia in America; and they could not be true of a climate where common winters were long and severe.

The real temperature of Italy is ascertained precisely by the olive and other plants, that we know will not bear severe frost, and will not thrive and come to perfection, but in warm climates.

The olive tree has been known in Greece from time immemorial. See Theophrast's history of plants, Lib. iv. and v. and notes. At what time it was introduced into Italy, is not recorded. Fenestella, says Pliny, relates that in the age of Tarquinius Priscus, the olive was not known in Italy, Spain or Africa. It was however cultivated in all parts of Italy, in Spain and Gaul, long before the christian era....*Plin. Nat. Hist. lib.* xv. *ca.* i.

We have then the data to ascertain the ancient climate of Italy with great precision. In our country, olives will grow well in Virginia, but frosts are too frequent and severe to permit their cultivation, to any valuable purpose. In South Carolina, they are cultivated to advantage. Italy then has had, from very early ages, a climate as mild as that of South Carolina.

The fig seems to have been a native of Italy. Plutarch, in his life of Romulus, tells us, that Romulus and Remus were found under a fig tree, where they were nourished by a Wolf. Whether this was true or not, it is certain that the Romans paid a particular veneration to a fig-tree that was in the forum, "ob memoriam ejus, quæ nutrix fuit Romuli et Remi conditoris appellata," says *Pliny. Lib.* xv. xviii. If the fig tree is a native of Italy, the climate could never have been colder than the Carolinas in America. This evidence is incontestible, and it totally overthrows the modern hypothesis of the severity of the winters in ancient Italy. It is needless to swell this argument by mentioning many other fruits, as dates, pomgranates and others, that will not thrive in cold climates.

The same plants grew and produced abundantly in Thessaly and Macedonia; although the ancients represented the latter as a cold country. It was doubtless colder than Greece, perhaps colder than Italy; but certainly could not be much colder than the Carolinas in America.*

The time of sowing corn in Italy is a confirmation of what is here advanced. Virgil directs the husbandman

* Herodotus, in Thalia, speaks of the seasons in Greece as "agreeable and temperate."....*Sect.* 106.

to sow barley between the autumnal equinox and the winter solstice. Wheat was not to be sown till the last of October, and those who sowed earlier were disappointed of a good harvest....*Georgic* i. These facts all correspond with each other, and demonstrate that the climate of Italy was then mild, and nearly as mild as it is at present. The time of sowing wheat, it will be observed, was the same as in Palestine. Severe winters often occur now, as they did 2000 years ago. Several winters are on record within a few centuries, in which vines and trees perished with cold. The winter of 1709 killed trees in Italy; as did that of 1757 in Syria. I can name a number of such winters within three or four hundred years.

No longer ago than 1788—9, the winter was so severe in Europe, that the rivers in Estremadura in Spain, and in Alantajo in Portugal, two southern provinces, and of the mildest climate, were covered with ice; and the mountains of Asturia, Leon and Biscay were covered with deep snow, as late as the 6th of March. See the Gazettes of the year 1789. It should be remarked that Barcelona, near which the Romans found snow four feet deep, as already related, is in the northern part of Spain.

Dr. Williams, as a further evidence of a mitigation of the cold in modern winters, mentions the present state of the climate round Constantinople and the Euxine Sea, compared with Ovid's description of it in his days. Ovid was banished to Tomos, near the Euxine, in lat. 44, about the 7th year of the Christian Era, and died there in the 15th year, or perhaps the 16th. He mentions that the Euxine was covered with ice, which was a highway for man and beast, and that wine was offered to him in a state of congelation. All this might be true at the time he was at Tomos, and even frequently true, without supposing the climate essentially different from what it is at present. But when Ovid asserts that the snow, in some places, was not dissolved during the summer, we must understand him to refer to snow on the high mountains; for all history testifies that the country about the Euxine, and far north, was, in Ovid's time,

This was in November. Let us see then whether the climate of the Alps is mitigated.

In 1789, Arthur Young met with a snow storm and freezing weather in the plains of Sardinia on the 13th of December. The next day, the frost was severe, the snow deep, and ice five inches thick, near Alexandria. On the 21st he crossed mount Cenis, on snow *ten feet deep*. On the 25th he reached Chamberry, and there was a thaw....See his Tour in France, vol. i. 516, 527, 530, 537. There is not a shadow of reason to suppose the least melioration of that climate within 2000 years.

The next series of facts to prove a great mitigation of the cold in winter, consists of what authors have recorded of ancient Gaul and Germany.

Diodorus Siculus, lib. 4, relates that "Gaul is infested with cold to an extreme degree. In cloudy weather, instead of rain, great snows fall; and in clear weather, it freezes so excessively, that the rivers are covered with bridges of their own substance, over which large armies pass with their baggage and loaded waggons. And there being many rivers in Gaul, the Rhone, the Rhine, &c. almost all of them are frozen over; and it is usual, in order to prevent falling, to cover the ice with chaff and straw."

"North of the Cevennes," says Strabo, "Gaul produces not figs and olives; and vines which have been planted, bear not grapes that will ripen"....*Lib.* 4.

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The last assertion of Gibbon is contrary to all historical evidence, and even to facts which took place during that author's life.

In opposition to Gibbon's assertion, I affirm then, that both the Rhine and the Danube have, within three cen-

turies, been frequently covered with ice sufficient to sustain the largest armies that ever issued from the north.

Dr. Williams has copied these remarks of Gibbon; and it is a most unfortunate circumstance for the author and the transcriber, that the very winter after Dr. Williams published his History of Vermont, the French troops crossed the Rhine into Holland *on the ice.* The rivers and canals were all converted into bridges in January 1795....See the speech of citizen Paulus to the Provisional Convention, January 26—State Papers, vol. iii. The cold was unusually severe; the event was an uncommon one; but it is one that happens in hard winters, a few of which occur every century.*

It appears by interrogatories made by the Stadtholder on the 18th of January 1795, to his naval officers, that the Prince could not escape from Holland by any of the rivers of that country—the eastern and western Ems, the Elbe and the Weser, being obstructed by ice....*State Papers, vol.* iii.

With respect to the other part of Gibbon's assertion, that the barbarians chose the winter season to make inroads into southern countries, because they could pass on the ice, I can readily believe this might have happened many times. From his acquaintance with the original historians, he was certainly well qualified to make the assertion. Some instances of this fact are recorded. I find in Cesar's History of the Gallic War no instance of this sort; but many instances of Roman armies and barbarians crossing the great rivers on bridges. Cesar was obliged to build bridges, at two or three different times, to throw his troops over the Rhine. Had the freezing of that river been an annual event, he would have taken the advantage of a bridge of ice.

That the Rhine did not freeze every winter, we have positive evidence, in the 4th book of the Gallic War. During the winter of the year 55 before the Christian era, two German nations attempted to invade Gaul, but were

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prevented by the want of boats. They employed a stratagem, and took possession of the boats belonging to the people or nation that inhabited the banks of that river, and by this means passed over, and subsisted for the remaining part of the winter, on the provisions they found on the other side. If the freezing of that river was a very common event, it is singular that Cesar, in all his wars in the adjacent countries, had not one occasion to mention the circumstance.

Cesar, in his 7th book of the Gallic War, mentions a winter campaign he made to quell an insurrection in the south of France. He was obliged to cross mount Cebenna, now Cevennes, in Languedoc, cutting a way through snow six feet deep. From this description of the snow, a superficial reader would draw the conclusion that the climate was intensely cold. Yet this was not the fact; for the river Loire, in the neighborhood, was not frozen so as to sustain troops; and in the siege of the town of Avaricus, Cesar relates, that the town was protected by a river and a morass.

The truth is, the mountain where the snow was then six feet deep, is high, and is annually covered with deep snow in this age; while the plains below enjoy a fine warm climate, that brings figs and olives to perfection. For these facts, I have the authority of Busching.... Abridg. vol. 5. and Arthur Young. Pinkerton describes the snows of these mountains in the following terms. "These mountains are in winter exposed to dreadful snowy hurricanes, called *acirs*, which, in a few hours, obliterate the ravins and even the precipices, and descending to the paths and streets, confine the inhabitants to their dwellings, till a communication can be opened with their neighbors, sometimes in the form of an arch under the vast mass of snow." This surely proves no moderation of the winters in France.

But let us attend to the vegetables which in the Augustan age flourished in Gaul. These, after all, are our safest guides.

Strabo says, Gaul produces not figs and olives north of the Cevennes; and grapes do not come to maturity.*

Diodorus Siculus goes further, and asserts that Gaul produces neither figs nor olives....*Lib.* 5.

Strabo is correct, as to figs and olives; for they will not come to perfection, at this day, north of the Cevennes.

Diodorus Siculus is an author of less credit, and in the instance before us, we have proof of his inaccuracy.

Pliny, whose authority in this case must be indisputable, expressly mentions the wine made in Auvergne, Languedoc, Dauphiny, Burgundy, and French Comptè. "Jam inventa vitis per se in vino picem resipiens Vinnensem agrum nobilitans, Arverno, Sequanoque, et Helvico generibus non pridem illustrata"....*Lib.* xiv. *ca.* 1. This species of vine, he observes, was unknown ninety years before, in the age of Virgil; and consequently was not known to Diodorus Siculus, who was cotemporary with Virgil. Strabo lived somewhat later, and had more correct information. This wine constituted the glory of that part of France formerly inhabited by the Allobroges, now called Dauphiny and Viennois, extending on the east side of the Rhone, from the Lemanic lake to its mouth, and was highly valued at Rome.

Pliny expressly mentions a species of the olive which thrived in Gaul beyond the Alps. "Quæ nunc provenit trans Alpes, quoque, et in Gallias, Hispaniasque medias."....*Lib.* xv. 1.

Strabo says the olive will not produce fruit, to the north of the Cevennes.

It is remarkable that the limits of the olive region, here designated, are precisely those to which that tree is now confined. The line, beyond which olives will not pro-

* It is well known that there are many varieties of grapes, and some far less hardy than others. The Romans might attempt to propagate, in the north of France, some varieties which thrived well in the south, and in Italy, but which would not come to maturity in a climate eight or ten degrees farther north; and from some instances of failure, might conclude that no vines would come to perfection in that country. I believe there are many varieties now cultivated in Italy and Greece, which would not come to perfection in the north of France.

duce fruit, as marked by Arthur Young, begins at the foot of the Pyrenees, in Rousillon, in the 42d degree of latitude, thence runs north-east, through Languedoc, to the southward of the Cevennes, crosses the Rhone at Montelimart, and pursues its direction, near Grenoble, towards Savoy, where it terminates. This district then includes part of Rousillon, part of Languedoc, most of Dauphiny, and all Provence. Olives grow and mature there precisely within the limits, marked by Strabo and Pliny, and as far as we can judge, not a league further north than they did eighteen hundred years ago.

I am willing to rest the whole argument on this fact. It is possible that the clearing and cultivation of particular places, by removing moisture, may enable the moderns to raise particular plants, as the vine, for example, in those places, where the ancients could not. But I do not find, in history, any evidence that a change of climate generally has carried any of the delicate fruits into latitudes where they did not thrive in the earliest ages. If any climate has become warmer by seventeen degrees, it would admit plants to be removed northward about ten degrees of latitude. For instance, the mean temperature of South Carolina is 66° by Farenheit; that in Connecticut, is about 49°, precisely the difference supposed by Dr. Williams to have taken place in the climate of Italy. The difference between the latitudes of Carolina and Connecticut is about 10 degrees. Ten degrees of latitude then give 17 degrees difference of temperature. If then olives grew in the south of France, eighteen centuries ago, and the climate has become warmer by 17 degrees, olives may have the same temperature now in 53° of latitude, that they formerly had in 43°. Of course they would thrive in Westphalia, Saxony and Prussia. Instead of which that tree is limited to Dauphiny and Languedoc, as it was at the Christian era.

The Roman writers speak of Gaul as a cold country. It certainly was colder than Italy, Greece, Africa, and Syria, the countries which were visited by the Romans, before they crossed the Alps. Accustomed to those mild climates, they were surprized at the rigorous win-

ters of Gaul and Germany. They described the mountains of Thrace also, as covered with eternal snow; yet Thrace was a fine country, and vines flourished on the borders of the Hellespont. The mountains were cold in winter, in Italy, Gaul, and Thrace; but the growth of certain delicate plants, in those countries, is a better criterion of the real temperature of the climates, than the descriptions of poets and historians.

The winters in Gaul were colder than in England, according to the express testimony of Cesar....*Lib.* v. So they are at this day. If the general temperature of Europe has moderated in 1800 years, Britain, though an island, must have shared in the mitigation of cold. Yet we cannot admit any considerable change on that island; for Tacitus, Life of Agricola 12, expressly declares that it enjoyed a moderate climate in his days. "Asperitas frigoris abest." The mean temperature of England now is about 48°. If the cold has moderated within 18 centuries, as much as Dr. Williams supposes it has in other European countries, the climate formerly must have been intolerably cold, contrary to the testimony of Tacitus.

Another argument in favor of a great mitigation of cold in Europe, used by Buffon, and copied by Gibbon and Dr. Williams, is the retirement of the Rane* (deer) from the south of Europe, the Pyrenees and the forests of Germany, into the colder regions of Norway and Russia. Buffon asserts that this animal will not multiply and cannot subsist, south of the Baltic.

I consider this argument as very fallacious. The Rane seeks the forest, and flies before the ax of the cultivator, like the bear, the common deer, and the Indian of America. How can the deer subsist in open fields? We might as well expect a fish to live in air, as the rane in a country destitute of woods, and frequented by man. The Hyrcanian forest no longer exists; the husbandman has deprived that animal of his shelter, his food, his element. He does not like the company of man, and

* This is the true name of this animal, by an egregious corruption called *Rein-Deer*.

has abandoned the cultivated parts of Europe. It is just so with the common deer of North America, the bear, and other wild animals. The deer used to be found along our sea coast, and on the neighboring islands; but for fifty miles from the shore, at this day, not a deer is to be found;* and in a century, not a bear nor a deer will be seen on the south of the lakes. But will any man ascribe this desertion of the country to their love of cold? Not at all. It is their love of the wild forest, and not of cold, which impels them to recede before the arts of cultivation. How could the rane subsist in an open, cultivated country, when it is well known that his favorite food is a species of lichen [rangiferinus] which grows only or chiefly on heaths and uncultivated hilly grounds? Instead of proving a change of climate, the retirement of the rane seems to have been the natural consequence of of cultivation.†

But Gibbon's assertion that the Rhine and the Danube, in modern ages, have not been covered with ice, strong enough to sustain loaded carriages, must not pass uncontradicted. I know not what ages precisely, that author intended to include in the description of *modern;* but both the rivers mentioned have *often* sustained men and carriages on the ice within the *two last centuries*, as well as in preceding ages. In 821 and 994, history expressly mentions this to have been the fact. In 1233, the rivers in Italy sustained the heaviest loads on the ice; of course the Rhine and Danube must have done the same. The fact is also recorded of the year 1306; and in 1363 the Rhine was covered with solid ice for ten weeks. In 1402 the Baltic was passable on the ice for six weeks; and we may well suppose the Rhine and Danube were not open. I have no particular account of the effects of the rigorous cold of 1608, 1610, 1664, 1684, 1698, 1709, 1716, 1740, 1763, 1776, on those

* These animals found shelter in the immense barren plain on Long-Island; and are not yet driven from that spot by the hunters.

† King Alfred, in relating the story of Octher, who seems to have been a native of Sweden or Lapland, mentions 600 ranes as a part of his wealth, and speaks of the animal as if he had never before heard of it.....*Alf. Oros. lib.* 1.

particular rivers; but the general accounts describe these and many other winters, during the two last centuries, as converting *all* rivers into highways for carriages, even as far south as Italy and Spain. But I have better proof of the fact. It is well known that the winters in England are *much milder* than in the same latitude on the Continent. This is always the case, and an undeniable fact. Now I have accounts that the Thames at London has been covered with solid ice, equal to the support of the heaviest loads, not only in most of the years mentioned, but in many others, during the two last centuries. From ten to fifteen or twenty rigorous winters occur, in every century, which convert most of the *small* rivers of Germany, France and England into highways; and several winters, in every century, produce the same effect in all the *large* rivers.

No longer ago than 1717, when Lady Montague travelled from Vienna to Constantinople, in the midst of winter, the navigation of the Danube was interrupted by the ice. In a letter dated at Belgrade Feb. 12, O. S. 1717, that lady says, "The weather is colder than I believe it ever was any where but in Greenland: We have a very large stove constantly kept hot, and yet the windows of the room are frozen on the inside." Between the date of that letter and the first of April, O. S. she pursued her journey to Adrianople, during which time, that is in March, she expressly says, "The Danube was now frozen over"....*See her Letter of April* 1.

This was not a winter of the greatest severity, though in England something colder than ordinary....See Short on Air, vol. ii. 20. The preceding winter had converted all rivers into bridges, even in Italy. What shall we then say to the assertions of such celebrated men as Gibbon? and what shall we think of the modern philosophy, erected on the authority of a few superficial inquiries?

The climate at Constantinople is milder than on the Danube; and in January 1718, Lady Montague sat with her window open, enjoying a fine warm sun....Letter 38. But this was an uncommon occurrence. In 1751, the people of Constantinople predicted the plague which raged terribly that year, from the *great snows of the prece-*

ding winter....Chenier's Morocco, vol. ii. 275. Indeed one single fact will demonstrate that the air at Constantinople is usually in winter below freezing point; which is, that winter always puts an end to the ravages of the plague—an event that rarely, if ever, takes place there without frost. But Constantinople is subject also to severe frosts, in hard winters, like all other northern countries; although the weather there, from the vicinity of the city to large bodies of water, is much less severe than in Hungary, Austria and Germany.

Men are led into numberless errors by drawing *general* conclusions from *particular* facts. "Lady Montague sat with her window open in January 1718, and therefore there is little or no winter in Constantinople," is very bad logic. The farmers on Connecticut river plowed their lands, as I saw, in February 1779; and the peaches blossomed in Pennsylvania. What then? Are the winters all mild in America? Not at all; in the very next year, not only our rivers, but our bays, and the ocean itself, on our coast, were fast bound with ice.

In 1592 the drouth was so severe that the Thames was fordable at London. In 1388, the Rhine was fordable at Cologne; and in 1473, the Danube was fordable in Hungary. Suppose in some future age, these facts should be alledged, as evidence of a wonderful increase of rains and moist weather, within the two last centuries; would such conclusions be just? Yet this is the reasoning which has principally supported the hypothesis of a modern diminution of cold in winter. Authors have mentioned and described the severe winters; while ordinary seasons have passed unnoticed; and this is the source of a great error in philosophy.

But scanty as our materials are for a history of the seasons in antiquity, we have a direct authority that mild winters occurred in the latitude of Constantinople, more than 2000 years ago.

Hippocrates, during the plague in Athens, B. C. 430, resided on the island of Thasus, which is in the Ægean Sea, near the coast of Thrace, a cool country, and near the latitude 41°. This author has left a minute description of the seasons for four years, with the current disea-

ses. The first of these winters was *mild like spring, with southerly winds.* The second winter northerly winds prevailed, and great rains, attended with snow. This seems to have been a *common* season. The third winter, the weather was northerly, the cold severe, and the snow deep. This seems to have been a hard winter, and if I am not deceived in the chronology of events, this was within a few months of the appearance of a comet, and the great eruption of Etna mentioned by Thucydides.

The fourth winter was mild, with southerly wind, except a period of severe cold about the equinox, in March.

This authority is indisputable, that the winters in ancient times, were, as they are now, irregular and various; and instead of being uniformly rigorous, some were mild as spring.

In later periods, I find occasional mention of mild winters, although little notice has been taken of seasons, except when extraordinary for cold. The winter of 802 was southerly, mild weather, followed by the plauge. Mild winters are also mentioned in 1186, 1248, 1281, 1284, 1428, in some of which people wore summer clothes the whole winter, and in one instance harvest, in northern latitudes was in May, in consequence of the warm weather in the winter preceding. These winters were antecedent to any great improvements in agriculture in Europe.

It may not be improper here to introduce a fact related by Theophrast, of a change of temperature in Thessaly.

The river Peneus winds through a charming valley in Thessaly, and between the mountains Olympus and Ossa, finds a passage to the Ægean sea. This passage, the ancients alledged, was opened by an earthquake; before which the valley was covered with stagnant water. The draining of this valley is said to have rendered the country more healthy, but at the same time, the air became colder. In proof of this, authors alledge that olives, which before had flourished, about Larissa, would not endure the severity of the winters, after the valley

was drained, and vines were often froze, which before was never known to happen....*See Anacharsis, vol.* iii. 341.

Whatever foundation may exist for this opinion, it seems the inhabitants had an idea that their climate had become *colder*, instead of warmer; and it is well known that places surrounded by water have a milder climate, than others remote from water. This, by the way, is the principal reason why Greece and Italy are more temperate than other countries under the same parellels of latitude.

Let us now attend to the evidence of a mitigation of the cold of American winters. The first proof adduced by Dr. Williams, is what Kalm says, that on the first settlement of Philadelphia, the Delaware was commonly covered with ice about the middle of November, old style, corresponding with the last week of the month, in new style. But, says our author, "it is not now commonly covered with ice till the first week in January".... *Hist. Vermont*, p. 58.

Unfortunately for the argument, that river has been covered with ice for three years last past, not only by the middle of November, *old* style, but in one or two of the years, by the middle of that month, in *new* style.

Dr. Williams quotes Smith's history of New-York to prove his doctrine; the page is not mentioned, but I suppose the passage to be a note in the margin of page 82, where the author says "The climate of late is much altered, and this day, Feb. 14, 1756, three hundred recruits sailed from New-York for the army at Albany, and last year a sloop went up the river a month earlier."

It is thus men are misled by founding general opinions on particular facts. The truth I find to be, that at the period mentioned, there were two or three winters in succession the most mild that were recollected by the oldest men; and all the world cried out, what a change of climate! A few years however changed the common opinion, and a few such winters as 1780, 1784, 1796—97—98 and 1804, will leave very little room to believe in a change of climate.

Smith however when he wrote the foregoing note, was writing in the text of his history, that Governor Fletcher sailed from New-York for Albany on Feb. 13th or 14th, in 1693. This certainly was a rare event, but it should have made him doubtful at least of a change of climate. Another fact cited by Dr. Williams, is, that Baron Lahontau put to sea from Quebec in 1690, on the 20th of November, new stile, the like of which had never been known in that place before. The St. Lawrence had been covered with ice on the 14th of November, but was cleared by a sudden thaw. Yet what conclusion can be drawn from the fact? Simply this, that the seasons then were sometimes very variable, as they are now. But Dr. Williams infers from this passage of history, that the St. Lawrence was, in former times, usually closed with ice by the middle of November; whereas in modern days, he says, it is not frozen over till the latter end of December or beginning of January. But this inference is probably drawn from some mild winters. In one fourth of our winters, the Hudson, Delaware and Connecticut are closed with ice in the 42d and 43d degree of latitude, as early as the last week in November, or first week in December; and it is against all probability that the St. Lawrence, in the 46th degree, continues open a month later.

In proof of his opinion, Dr. Williams cites a passage from Wood's Prospect, a work written in the early settlement of this country, which says, that the winters then began in December, and continued to February 21 (new stile,) when the rivers and bays were unlocked by warm weather; the duration of winter then was two months or ten weeks. This is mentioned to have been a very regular occurrence for ten or twelve years.

From this passage the author concludes the bays about Boston, on the first settlement of New-England, must have been "annually covered with ice," and that this bridge lasted through the winter months: Whereas in these days, this is not a regular event, nor when froze, does the ice continue so long. From data which he supposes sufficiently correct, he concludes that our

climate has suffered a melioration in winter of ten or twelve degrees.

But we have here another instance of the fallacy of such general conclusions. In the first place Wood does not say that during the ten weeks of winter, the ice was never broken up by thaws, as it is in modern times; on the other hand, his expressions fairly intimate that such thaws were common; for he observes that about the 21st of February, the rivers and bays are unlocked, and "are never again frozen the same year." This expression doubtless alludes to the well known and common occurrence, that rivers, cleared of ice at an earlier period, were covered with ice again, in the same winter.

But that such thaws occurred, at that period, I have direct proof from Winthrop's Journal. In 1634, December 4th, old stile, a violent snow storm was followed by a severe frost that covered Boston bay with ice in two days, but "it was free again before night." In the middle of January, a pinnace came to Boston from Port Royal; and about the end of the month, a boat coming from Deer's Island was detained at Bird's Island; and also others were detained at an Island in the harbor by the ice, which was not sufficient to bear a man. After that the ice was firm for two or three weeks. This was no uncommon occurrence; a "January thaw" is a proverb handed down to us from our ancestors. That was a hard winter, yet many persons fell through the ice and were drowned.

But our ancestors had also mild winters, which made little or no ice in rivers or bays. Such was the winter of 1633—4, next preceding that last mentioned. Winthrop says expressly "this winter was mild, little wind and most S. and S. W." The last of February, fell a deep snow, but the winter was at an end. This is decisive evidence that the winters have been from the first settlement of America, variable, now mild, now severe, just as they are in the present age.

In 1635, Connecticut river was closed with ice November 15, old stile [26] at Hartford, but at Saybrook, not till December 10th [21]. This was a severe winter.

A ship from Bristol entered Boston Bay in January 1637, and by stress of weather was driven into Plymouth harbor.

In 1638, on the 13th of January old stile, [the 24th] Boston harbor was open; for thirty men went down to Spectacle Island to cut wood. A snow storm arose, in the following night, after that the wind was at N. W. for two days, and then, says Governor Winthrop, "it froze so hard, as the bay was all frozen up, except a little channel." By this opening twelve of the men got to the Governor's garden; others escaped on the ice. Of this winter the Governor writes, "This was a very hard winter. The snow lay from November 4, [15th] to March 23d [April 3d] one and an half yard deep about the Massachusetts," &c.....*See pages* 146, 154. Let it be observed, that in this "very hard winter," Boston harbor was open till the 24th of January.

Note....In page 154, it is said this was in 1637. But it is immaterial.

The winter of 1641—2 was one of the most rigorous kind, like that of 1709, 1741 and 1780. It froze the bay at Boston as far out at sea as the eye could reach; loaded sleds passed from Muddy River to Boston. All the rivers in Virginia, and even Chesopeak Bay, were covered with ice. These things are recorded by Governor Winthrop as *extraordinary occurrences*, such as passing on the ice from Pullen's Point and Muddy River to Boston—a proof that the several frosts supposed by Dr. Williams were not annual events. And the Indians declared that a like winter had not happened in forty years preceding.

The next winter was milder than usual, and the winter following there was "little rain and no snow till March 3".....*Winthrop*, *p.* 240, 269, 324.

In an account of the Natives of New-England, written by Governor Winslow, and annexed to Dr. Belknap's 2d vol. of American Biography, we have the following description of the climate of New-England, in 1624:—"For the temperature of the air, in almost three years experience, I can scarce distinguish New-England from

Old England, in respect to heat and cold, frost, snow, rain and wind."—"Experience teaches us, that if the heat does exceed England, it is so little as must require better judgments to discern it. As for the winter, I rather think, *if there be a difference*, it is both sharper and longer in New-England, than Old; yet the want of those comforts in one, which I have enjoyed in the other, may deceive my judgment also." "The seed-time beginneth in the midst of April, and continueth good till the midst of May." This was written at Plymouth, a place whose heat in summer, and cold in winter, is moderated by the air from the sea. But the description does not warrant the idea of excessively cold winters. Seed-time was as early then as it is now.

In an account of the climate, soil and produce of New-England, written by the Rev. Mr. Higgeson, of Salem, in 1629, we have the following description of the seasons. "In the summer time, in the midst of July and August, it is a good deal hotter than in Old England; and in winter, January and February are much colder, as they say; but the spring and autumn are of a middle temper. In the winter season, for *two months* space, the earth is commonly covered with snow, which is accompanied with sharp, biting frosts, something more sharp than in Old England, and therefore we are forced to make great fires"....*Historical Collections, vol.* i. 117.

This description answers well for the ordinary seasons in New-England at the close of the 18th century. The summers are hotter; the winters colder than in England. A winter of eight weeks or two months frost, may be considered as a medium winter, between our very mild and very severe winters.

From the same narrative, it appears that maiz thrived as well then, as it does now, in the plantations about Salem, and produced the most abundant crops.

In a tract written in 1642, called "New-England's First Fruits," the climate is thus represented, in answer to some objections that had been made to the project of settling the country. "True, it is sometimes cold, when the wind blows strong at northwest; but *it holds not long*

together, and then it useth to be very moderate"....*Hist. Col. vol.* i. 249.

The writer mentions the purity and wholesomeness of the air, and the bright, clear, fair weather, which are preferable to the moist, foggy, cold air of Holland and England. This account of the seasons answers well to the state of the weather in our days.

But I have a further remark to make on the passage cited from Wood's Prospect. This writer does not say that Boston Bay and Charles River were annually froze for eight or ten weeks. His words, if rightly quoted, are, "For ten or a dozen years, the weather hath held himself to his day, unlocking *his icy bays and rivers*, which are never frozen again the same year." These words do not authorize Dr. Williams to suppose the writer meant Boston Bay and Charles River at Boston. He might have had in view more inland bays and rivers; and indeed he must have had; for it is proved by Winthrop's Journal, an unexceptionable authority, that Boston harbor was not always nor generally froze in the midst of winter. If Wood then meant inland rivers and arms of the sea, his description is exactly true, at this day. I can aver, from thirty years observation, that Connecticut River at Hartford is a bridge of ice, on an average, eight or ten weeks in a winter; rather more than less; that is, from the beginning or middle of December to the 20th of February. This is the precise time mentioned by Wood; and the passage, instead of favoring Dr. Williams's opinion, is direct evidence that there has been no sensible diminution of cold in America, since its settlement.

In Winthrop's Journal I find a confirmation of this opinion. In page 23, there is a remark like that of Wood before cited, that "ever since the bay has been planted by the English, viz. *seven years*, it hath been observed, that at this day [February 10th, old stile, 1631] the frost hath broken up every year." Fortunately we have in this Journal full proof that the remark was not intended to represent the breaking up of a bridge of ice over the bay of Boston or Charles River.

On the 22d day of December, O. S. Governor Winthrop writes thus: "Till this time there was for the most part, fair open weather, with gentle frosts in the night; but this day the wind came N. W. very strong, and some snow withal, but so cold as some had their fingers frozen—three of the Governor's servants coming in a shallop from Mistick, were driven by the wind upon Noddle's Island"....*p.* 21. At this time then, the 3d of January, new stile, there was no ice in Charles River.

On the 26th, the Governor writes, "The rivers are frozen up, and they of Charlestown could not come to the sermon at Boston, till the afternoon at high water." By this we are to understand, that Charles River at the ferry was full of ice, which was removed by the flood tide, so that the river was passable in boats. This was on the 6th of January. On the 28th of December, O. S. the 8th of January, seven persons, says the Governor, set sail in a shallop, from Boston for Plymouth, and were cast away on Cape Cod. Boston harbor and bay must then have been open....*See p.* 21 *and* 22.

On the 5th of February, O. S. [the 16th] arrived the ship Lyon, at Nantasket. On the 8th [the 19th] the Governor went aboard the Lyon, then lying by Long-Island. On the 9th [20th] the Lyon came to anchor before Boston. On the 10th, O. S. [21st] says Governor Winthrop, "the frost broke up, and after that, tho we had many storms and sharp frost, yet they continued not, neither were the waters frozen up as before." The Governor then remarks, that for seven years before, the frost had broken up, on the same day of the month.... *See p.* 23.

This evidence is decisive to prove, that the breaking up of the ice was not said of the ice in Boston harbor; for the Governor went down to the ship Lyon, at Long Island, which is almost five miles from the town, and the ship came to anchor before Boston, *before the ice broke up.* Let it be noted also, that the severe frost, in that year, set in about Christmas, and broke up on the 21st of February; of course, it lasted about eight weeks, as in modern times.

It is obvious therefore that Gov. Winthrop and Mr. Wood, in the passages noted, speak of the breaking up

of the rivers and frost in the country generally; and not of the ice in Boston harbor: And it is remarkable that the time mentioned is the same as that in which the winter of New-England, in ordinary seasons, now breaks up, viz. about the 20th of February.

I will only observe further on this point, that in Winthrop's Journal, which comprehends the events of fourteen years, from the first settlement of Boston, from 1630 to 1644, we have positive evidence that Boston harbor was usually open, and that vessels entered and departed in the midst of winter. The freezing of the bay, in the extremely severe winter of 1642, and the passing of loads on the ice, are described as *rare occurrences;* and what is more explicit, Governor Winthrop declares, "The frost was so great and continual this winter, that all the bay was frozen over so much and so long, as the like, by the Indian relation, had not been these forty years." Yet this frost lasted only from the 18th of January to the 21st of February, old stile, about five weeks....*See p.* 240. This evidence is decisive of the question, and utterly disproves the opinion of a change of climate. On the 18th of January, O. S. 1644, Boston harbor was open....*See p.* 321.

If Dr. Williams is unfortunate in his facts, he is still more so in his reasonings and deductions. The following is a specimen.

In 1782, the river between Boston and Charlestown was frozen, so that horses and sleys passed over, for five or six days. The ice was permanent from February 2d to the 10th. During that time the lowest point of cold by Farenheit was 9°; the highest 28°, and the mean of the temperature 13°. From this statement, the Doctor concludes, that the freezing of the bays mentioned by Wood about the year 1630, could not take place in a less degree of cold than 13°. He found from seven years observations, that the mean temperature of December was, in these years [from 1780 to 1788] 29° 4; that of January, 22° 5; and that of February, 23° 9. Hence he concludes, that the change of temperature at Boston since the year 1630 must have been from "ten to twelve degrees."

I confess myself surprized that so intelligent a man should not have observed the fallacy of this reasoning. He takes the mean of *seven or eight severe cold* days in 1782, which covered Charles River with ice, for the standard by which to estimate the cold of 1630, and the mean of the *whole winter*, as the standard of cold in modern days, by which to compare it. This mode of reasoning is all fallacious. In the first place, it is not true that a mean degree of cold, answering to 13° by Farenheit, is necessary to keep Charles River covered with ice. The effect would be produced with a much less degree of cold. Let the mercury sink to 10° for five days, and a bridge of ice would be formed. Then let the cold relax, and the mercury rise to 30° for five days. The mean temperature of the whole ten days would be 20°. Yet in this case probably, the ice would remain a solid bridge through the whole time, notwithstanding the rapid tides in that river. And in fresh water, where there is no current, the bridge would remain a much longer time, and in much milder weather. Indeed, I can prove that a river or pond of water may be covered with twelve inches of solid ice, when the *mean* temperature is not below freezing point. But I will not rest the argument on calculations; I appeal to facts.

In November, 1797, commenced a series of severe cold, altho the beginning of the month was as mild as usual. Towards the close of the month, the Hudson, Delaware and Connecticut were covered with solid ice; yet the mean temperature of the whole month, at the exchange at New-York, was 38° 87 by Farenheit, almost seven degrees above the freezing point. This fact exhibits the fallacy of the Doctor's conclusions.... *See p. 59, of his History of Vermont.*

In page 383, Appendix, Dr. Williams states that in America, where the rivers are froze to a firmness sufficient to sustain heavy loads, the "mean heat of the winters is from 15 to 20 degrees." This is a most egregious mistake, and contradicts his own observations of the weather between 1780 and 1788, as before stated. The mean temperature of those seven winters was, by his own statement, 25° 2—and this corresponds nearly

with the results of Dr. Holyoke's seven years observations at Salem, which make the mean temperature of the three winter months 25° 76. With this degree of cold, fresh water rivers are annually covered, and held bound with solid ice.

To cover with ice salt streams, bays and arms of the sea, a greater degree of cold is requisite, and this degree occurs many times every century.

If then a mean temperature of 25 or 26 degrees by Farenheit will keep the American rivers covered with ice for many weeks, we have further evidence that the Rhine and Danube, fresh water rivers, must be frequently froze in modern times. Dr. Williams states the mean degree of cold at several places in Europe, as follows:

At Vienna, in 1779 and 1780,	*January*,	27° 5
	February,	33 23
At Ratisbon, in 1781 and 2,	*January*,	30 52
	February,	30 76
At Manheim, in 1781 and 2,	*January*,	35 08
	February,	35 08

From these means he deduces the general mean of 31° 8 for January, and 33° 6, for February, which, he says, will accurately express the temperature of a German winter on those rivers. Admit this conclusion, and what follows? The undeniable consequence that a German winter is almost as cold as a New-England winter; for the mean temperature of January in Vienna was 27° 5—the mean temperature of an American winter is 25° 76. The difference is only *one degree and twenty-nine hundredths*. The difference between the general mean of January above stated, 31° 8, and the general mean of America, of 25° 76, is only 5° 32. If the vibrations of heat and cold are as great on the Rhine and Danube as in America, which is understood to be the fact, those rivers must be froze every winter, although perhaps not sufficiently in a common winter, to sustain loaded carriages. Certain it is that the cold at Manheim and Ratisbon is nearly equal to any thing experienced in New-England. In the Memoirs of the American Academy, part 1 of vol. 2, page 88, Dr. Holyoke has stated the

greatest cold at Ratisbon, by a series of observations, to be 13° 45 below cipher by Farenheit, and the mean of the greatest colds, 2° 42 below cipher. At Manheim, the greatest cold was 8° 95 below 0, and the greatest mean of cold 1° 2 above 0. From all which it is obvious that no diminution of cold, equal to 16 degrees, can have taken place, since the Goths and Vandals invaded the Roman empire, as Dr. Williams supposes; for the cold which reduces the mercury by Farenheit's scale to 8 or 10 degrees above cipher, if continued only two or three days, must cover the Rhine and Danube with solid ice.

Before I conclude this subject, it is proper to notice what Mr. Jefferson has written on the climate of Virginia.....*Notes, Query* 7. "A change in our climate," says this author, "is taking place very sensibly. Both heats and colds are become much more moderate, within the memory even of the middle aged. Snows are less frequent and less deep. They do not often lie below the mountains more than one, two or three days, and very rarely a week. The elderly inform me, the earth used to be covered with snow about three months in every year. The rivers which then seldom failed to freeze over in the course of the winter, scarcely ever do so now. This change has produced an unfortunate fluctuation between heat and cold in the spring of the year, which is fatal to fruits."

What evidence there is of a diminution of heat in summer, I do not know; but I find abundant evidence that no such diminution has taken place. And that no very definite proof of the fact has appeared, is very obvious from the difference of opinion on the subject. Mr. Jefferson supposes a *diminution* of the heat of summer. Dr. Williams supposes a general *increase* of heat in our climate; and I leave them to adjust the difference between themselves.

Mr. Jefferson seems to have no authority for his opinions but the observations of elderly and middle-aged people. But what shall we say to the following facts? Mr. Jefferson informs that in Virginia, the snow used to cover the earth about three months in every year. How

shall we reconcile this account with the representation of the climate by Lord Delaware and Sir Thomas Gates, a few years after Virginia was first planted, A. D. 1611 or 12? In that account it is expressly stated, that "the soil is favorable for the cultivation of vines, sugar-canes, oranges, lemons, almonds and rice—*the winters are so mild that the cattle can get their food abroad,* and swine can be fatted on wild fruits....*See Purchas, vol.* v. 1758; *Belknap's Biography, vol.* ii. 39.

If this description of the climate is just, the seasons in Virginia were then just what they are now. In ordinary winters, cattle and swine will get their living in the woods; but in severe winters, they are liable to perish.

Perhaps Mr. Jefferson's observations refer to the interior and mountainous parts of the State, where by the clearing of the lands, the winters may have become less steady, and the snows less durable; but this is no proof of a general diminution of cold in the winter; it proves only more variable weather. The description given by the first settlers about 190 years ago, is decisive evidence that the general temperature of the climate was then the same as it is now; and that in its rude state, Virginia produced the delicate tropical fruits, as far north as they can be cultivated at this day. Had there been a general increase of heat in our climate, the cultivation of the fig and the olive would have advanced northward to Pennsylvania or New-England; but instead of this, not a plant has advanced a single league since the first settlement of the country.

To the testimony of Lord Delaware and Sir Thomas Gates, may be added that of Beverly, who in his history of Virginia, written at the beginning of the last century, says, "The rivers and creeks were, in many places, covered with fowl during the winter"—which precludes the fact that they were covered with ice....*p.* 134. "That elks, buffaloes, deer and other game," were hunted by the natives "in winter, when *the leaves were fallen and so dry, they would burn;*" the Indians driving them into a crowd, by circular fires....*p.* 136. In page 252, he alludes to the practice of letting cattle feed in the woods in winter, and charges his countrymen with ill husbandry, in not providing sufficiently for them all winter. In

page 268 he says, the winters in Virginia are very short, continuing not above three or four months, of which thirty days are seldom unpleasant weather; all the rest being blest with a clear air and a bright sun. However, sometimes the frost is very hard, but it *rarely lasts more than three or four days*, before the wind changes. The rains, except in the depth of winter, are extremely refreshing and agreeable.... *Lond. Edit.* 1722.

It appears to me extremely unphilosophical to suppose any considerable change in the annual heat or cold of a particular country. We have no reason to suppose that the inclination of the earth's axis to the plane of its orbit has ever been varied; but strong evidence to the contrary. If this inclination has always been the same, it follows that the quantity of the solar rays, falling annually on a particular country, must have always been the same. Should these data be admitted, we are led to conclude that the general temperature of every climate, from the creation to this day, has been the same, subject only to small annual variations, from the positions of the planets in regard to the earth, or the operations of the element of fire in the globe and its atmosphere.

The real truth seems to be, that when a country is covered with forest, the vibrations in the temperature of the air and of the earth near the surface, are less numerous and less considerable, than in an open country. Dr. Williams himself has furnished the data by which to determine this point. In 1791 he found an open field froze to the depth of three feet five inches; at the same time, in a forest, he found the temperature of the earth, to be 39° by Farenheit, seven degrees above frost. This fact solves the question here discussed.

While a country is covered with trees, the face of the earth is never swept by violent winds; the temperature of the air is more uniform, than in an open country; the earth is never froze in winter, nor scorched with heat in summer; and snow that falls in November usually lies till March or April, altho the earth below is not froze, but gradually melts the snow and absorbs the water. On the other hand, an open country is exposed to violent winds and frequent great changes of weather. The earth in winter is usually froze into a solid mass from one to three

feet thick; great snows alternate with heavy rains; the earth which is covered with snow to-day, is to-morrow left bare; and an iron surface of this week, is, the next, converted into soft mud. Hence probably as much snow falls in an open country as in a forest; or if the clearing of a country converts more of the vapor into the water, yet it is liable also to more extreme cold, which preserves a balance in the temperature. That these are facts every man knows, who has observed the difference between the open country and the forest, in our old settlements; and Dr. Williams himself has given the results of meteorological observations which confirm them, and disprove the common theory of a moderation of cold. In page 50 of his history, he states the difference between the heat of the earth in an open field, and in the woods, during the summer; by which experiments, it is demonstrated, that from the latter part of May to the close of August, the open country sustains about ten degrees of heat, beyond that of the forest; the thermometer being sunk ten inches below the surface of the earth. At another time, he found the winter temperature of the earth in the forest to be 39°, while, in open field, the earth was froze. The vibrations therefore in the temperature of the earth, when cleared, are found to be much greater than when covered with wood. The differences, according to Dr. Williams, are as follows:

Winter temperature of the earth in the woods in Vermont, - - - - - - 39°

of the open field at frost, 32°

Summer Temperature of the Earth.

		In an open field.	In the forest.	Difference.
May	23,	50°	46°	4
	28,	57	48	9
June	15,	64	51	13
	27,	62	51	11
July	16,	62	51	11
	30,	65 1-2	55 1-2	10
August	15,	68	58	10
	31,	59 1-2	55	4 1-2
Sept.	15,	59 1-2	55	4 1-2
October	1,	59 1-2	55	4 1-2

From these observations, it results that in winter the earth of the forest is seven degrees warmer than the open field; and in summer, it is, on an average, from May 23 to August 31, 9 1-4 degrees colder—and on an average, from May 23 to October 1, 8 1-4 degrees colder. That is, the vibrations in the forest temperature of the earth are between 39° and 58°—only 19 degrees of difference between winter and summer—while the vibrations in the temperature of the open country, are between 32, or frost, and 68—making a difference of 36° between winter and summer.

The vibrations of the temperature of the air, are more considerable; but it is an unquestionable fact that they are much greater in an open country, than in a forest; and so far is it from truth, that the clearing and cultivation of our country, has moderated the rigor of our cold weather, that the cold of our winters, tho less steady, has been most sensibly increased. There is not a greater amount of cold during the winter, but the cold at times is more severe than before our counrry was cleared. The difference is so sensible, as to be a subject of popular remark among aged people.

Another effect of clearing the country is to distribute the cold of the year more unequally: hence fruits are more exposed to spring frosts. This is a most serious inconvenience in Europe, and is becoming so in America. The reason of variable and late springs is obvious. While the earth is covered with wood, it is never froze, but as soon as the snow is dissolved in spring, vegetation begins. In an open country, after the snow is melted, the earth is to be thawed; and the heat of the air for two or three weeks, is incessantly absorbed by the earth and water, while the frost is dissolving. Hence the heat of a warm day in spring is speedily absorbed, and cold succeeds. This alternation must continue, till the earth is warmed. If the winter temperature of the earth in a forest is 39° and that of the open country 32, we may easily conceive what an immense quantity of heat it must require to raise the temperature of the open field to that of the forest. It must demand nearly all the heat excited by the solar rays in April, so that in our open country, the earth is proba-

bly not warmer on the last of that month, than it was, when a forest, on the first of the month.

It will be remarked that in discussing this question, I have admitted the fact assumed by my opposers, that there has been a clearing and cultivation of Palestine, since the settlement of the Jews in that country; and of Italy, since the days of Julius Cesar. But I must not quit the subject, without contradicting the fact assumed. The reverse is the truth.

When Joshua led the Israelites towards Palestine, that country was very populous, inhabited by various tribes of people, and containing large cities, whose enormous walls terrified the Israelites. Never has that country been so populous as in the few first centuries, after the Israelites took possession of it. The country therefore could not have been covered with wood, but every foot of cultivable land was occupied by husbandmen.

Equally true is it, that the countries on the north of Syria were as populous in the days of Darius, as at any subsequent period. It was the case also in Italy, which was more populous at the Christian era, than it has been for the last fifteen centuries. In all these countries therefore, no clearing of the lands can have taken place, to influence the climates, within the period in which a moderation of cold is supposed. Germany, on the north of Italy, has been, in a degree, cleared; but the Rhetian Alps intervene between Italy and Germany; and the cold winds which affect Italy in winter, blow from those high lands, where the air is colder than in the less hilly country on the north. In every point therefore, the hypothesis of a moderation of climate appears to be unsupported.

I would only further observe, that if the cold has abated ten or twelve degrees in our climate, within a century and a half, it must have been intolerable before that period. The mean temperature of Vermont now is about 43°. If we deduct 10° only for abatement of cold, the water in deep wells in Vermont, two hundred years ago, must have been of 33° of temperature, or nearly at the freezing point; in Canada it must have been at 32°, or the state of congelation. If we suppose the winter only

to have changed, and deduct one half the supposed abatement, still the result forbids us to believe the hypothesis. If we suppose the heat of summer to have lessened in the same proportion, as just philosophy requires us to do, the summers formerly must have been intolerable; no animal could have subsisted under ten degrees of heat beyond our present summer temperature. On whichever side we turn our eyes, we meet with insurmountable difficulties.

From all I can discover, in regard to the seasons, in ancient and modern times, I see no reason to conclude with Dr. Williams, that the heat of the earth is increasing. It appears that all the alterations in a country, in consequence of clearing and cultivation, result only in making a different distribution of heat and cold, moisture and dry weather, among the several seasons. The clearing of lands opens them to the sun, their moisture is exhaled, they are more heated in summer, but more cold in winter near the surface; the temperature becomes unsteady, and the seasons irregular. This is the fact. A smaller degree of cold, if steady, will longer preserve snow and ice, than a greater degree, under frequent changes. Hence we solve the phenomenon, of more constant ice and snow in the early ages; which I believe to have been the case. It was not the *degree*, but the *steadiness* of the cold which produced this effect. Every forest in America exhibits this phenomenon. We have, in the cultivated districts, deep snow to-day, and none to-morrow; but the same quantity of snow falling in the woods, lies there till spring. The same fact on a larger scale, is observed in the ice of our rivers. This will explain all the appearances of the seasons, in ancient and modern times, without resorting to the unphilosophical hypothesis of a general increase of heat.

SUPPLEMENTARY REMARKS,

On the supposed Alteration of the Temperature of Winter:

WRITTEN AND READ BEFORE THE ACADEMY IN 1806.

WHEN the preceding Dissertation was written, I had devoted very little time to an examination of the subject, and had read very few of the authorities cited to prove a moderation of cold in winter in modern times. Since that time, I have noted such passages in ancient authors, as have occurred to me, in the course of reading, with a view to ascertain, if possible, the real fact, whether the industry and improvements of men, by destroying forests and cultivating the earth, have occasioned a material alteration of climate.

Strabo, in the first book of his geography, cites from Homer, whom he calls the father of geography, a passage which describes the climate of the western part of Europe, where the poet places Elysium.... *See Odyssey, book* 4. This country, says the poet, experiences "no violent storms of snow, and little winter, but is perpetually refreshed by gentle zephyrs ftom the ocean." This description Strabo applies to Iberia, or Spain, and alleges that the *Fortunate* Isles received their name from their vicinity to this happy climate. The description proves at least the opinion of the ancients respecting the climate of Spain and Portugal, and it corresponds with the present state of the climate.

Polybius, speaking of an invasion of Peloponnese by Philip of Macedonia, about the year before Christ 218, mentions the hardships which his army encountered, in passing Ligyrtus, a mountain of Arcadia, on his march to the siege of Psophis, by reason of *deep snow* which covered the mountain. But that the cold was not great, we have evidence in the same book, as the army, a few days afterwards, passed over the river Erymanth, on a bridge, for it was not fordable.*....*Polyb. Megalop. Hist. lib.* iv.

In an account of the invasion of Sparta by Epimanondas, in the Travels of Anacharsis, the author remarks that the Theban general was making dispositions to pass the Eurotas, then swelled by the melting of snow, chap. 1. where is cited as authority....*Plutarch's Life of Agesilaus.*

From these passages, we conclude that snow fell in winter in Lacedemon, especially on the mountains, but was soon dissolved; and hence Polybius observes of a river on the west of Psophis, that it was seldom fordable in winter. But I find no evidence in history that frost of any severity was ever experienced in Lacedemon or Attica. On the other hand, it is related from Plutarch, that when Epimanondas was in Arcadia with an army, in winter, he was invited by deputies from a neighboring city to take up his quarters in the city; but he declined; assigning as a reason that if the Lacedemonians should see him and his men by the fire, they would take them to be ordinary men. He therefore chose to continue in camp, notwithstanding the rigor of the season, and continue their wrestling matches and military exercises....*Anarch. chap.* v. This anecdote indicates cool uncomfortable weather in that country in winter, but not severe cold, like that which freezes large rivers in America.

The author of Anacharsis relates from Columella, that the winter, in every part of Beotia, is very cold, and at Thebes almost insupportable; and that snow, wind and

* Strabo, lib. viii. informs us that Arcadia is a mountainous region; some of the mountains being fifteen stadiums in altitude.

want of wood, render that part of Greece an unpleasing residence in winter....*See ch.* xxxiv. With what caution we ought to receive such general accounts of climate, may be understood from the fact, that in Thessaly, far north of Beotia, and in a mountainous country, vines and olives came to perfection, according to the testimony of the same writer, in the same chapter. Cold and heat are comparative; and the degrees of them are not to be known from general assertions. Homer speaks of the wild fig-tree before the walls of Troy, a degree and a half of latitude north of Beotia....*Iliad, B.* 6. *v.* 433. And other ancient authors speak of the fig-tree, vines and olives growing in Macedonia, two degrees still further north.....*Anarch. ch.* lxv. Pliny informs us that figs were produced at Mount Ida, near the site of Troy.... *Nat. Hist. lib.* 15. *ca.* xviii. Theophrast informs us that figs grew in great abundance in Pontus, on the south shore of the Euxine....*Hist. Plant. lib.* iv. 6. And Xenophon found, on his retreat with the ten thousand, figs and vines in abundance at Calpe, on the same shore, about 870 stadiums from Byzantium....*See his account, b.* vi. Pliny, in the book just cited, gives an account of a method of raising figs in Mœsia, the modern Bulgaria, in the 44th degree of north latitude, which was effected by covering small trees in winter with compost. These facts, and numberless others, which I have found in authors, furnish the most accurate test of the real state of the climate in Greece, Asia Minor, and the neighboring countries.

Joseph, in the fifth book of his Antiquities, ch. v. relates that in the battle between the Canaanites and the Israelites, under Barak and Deborah, the Canaanites were exceedingly annoyed by a storm of rain and *hail*, which blew in their faces, and rendered their bows and slings almost useless; while the cold benumbed their fingers, so that they could not use their swords. This fact would seem to confirm the common opinion that, anciently, Palestine was far colder than at present. But we must not be misled by single facts. In the very next chapter, the historian, in relating the sufferings of his

countrymen, from the Midianites, informs us that their enemies invaded the country in time of harvest, and carried away or destroyed their corn for three years in succession: but permitted the Israelites to *plow their land in winter*, that they might furnish fruits of the earth for their plunderers. The latter fact entirely overthrows the opinion that anciently the winters were more rigorous than at present; for we see that it was customary to prepare the land for seed in winter, as it is at this day. A storm of hail or snow might happen occasionally in winter, as it does now in South-Carolina and Georgia, but the frost of ordinary years was not sufficient to impede the agricultural operations of winter.

Appian relates that at the siege of Numantia in Spain, many Roman soldiers perished by cold and frequent hail storms, about 145 years before the christian era. But Numantia was situated in the center and mountainous part of Spain, near the source of the Duro, where the laws of nature require us to suppose a considerable degree of cold in winter. Yet an anecdote related by Quintilian, book 6, shows that in Tarracona, the country where Barcelona is now situated, the climate must have been as mild as at present. The people of Tarracona informed Augustus, that a palm tree was growing from his altar. "From that I can judge," replied the Prince, "how often you use fire upon it." This story implies that palm trees grew in the north of Spain, and in the very latitude of Numantia, on the eastern coast, which is washed by the Mediterranean.

In the first chapter of the second book of Maccabees, the Jews of Jerusalem recommend to their brethren in Egypt to keep the feast of tabernacles in the month Casleu, which answers to a part of November and December. This circumstance among others led Prideaux to pronounce the epistles of the Jews in this chapter to be spurious; for, says that learned author, the Jews could not, in the middle of winter, make such booths, as in the feast of tabernacles; they could neither find green boughs enough, nor could they lie abroad in such booths ....*Connec. Part* ii. *b.* 3. This argument is undoubtedly founded on mistake; for in a country where the plowing

and sowing of land was constantly carried on in winter, and where the palm tree flourished in perfection, ordinary winters would not render the temporary lodging in booths very uncomfortable; nor could such a country be necessarily destitute of green boughs. Let it be added also, that in the second chapter of the Song of Solomon, we find the winter was a season of *rain*, and not of snow. "The winter is past; the rain is over and gone."

In opposition to Prideaux's opinion, and to the general hypothesis of the rigorous winters of antiquity, it may be remarked that in Greece, six degrees of latitude north of Judea, the theaters were not covered, but plays were acted in the open air...*See Anarch. ch.* lxx. *where Vitruvius, lib.* v. *cap.* 9, *is cited as an authority.* The Roman theaters and amphitheaters were also without roofs. Indeed for centuries after theatrical representations were introduced at Rome, the theaters were temporary structures of wood, without seats, the spectators standing during the exhibition....*Tacit. An.* xiv. 20. It is evident also from a passage in Quintilian, lib. 10. ch. iii. that the courts of justice were held in apartments without roofs; and so was the Areopagus in Athens.....*Acts* xvii.

Authors inform us that in the later ages of refinement at Athens, the stage, and a part of the theater occupied by the ladies, were covered; but the spectators in general had no covering but their clothes. Plays were indeed acted in Greece in the day time; but as they were acted at all seasons of the year, the open theaters forbid us to suppose the winters more rigorous and tempestuous formerly than in modern days.

The thin dress of the Romans and Greeks is another proof of the mildness of their climate. The Romans wore no garments answering to the modern breeches and stockings; their principal garments being the *Tunica*, or close coat worn at home, and the *Toga*, or loose gown without sleeves, worn in public; to which may be added the Trabea, Paludamentum, Chlamys and Læna, robes worn by men of distinction and military officers....*Kennet. Antiq. Rom.* ii. 5. 7. Hence the close garments which invested the lower limbs of the Celtic and Teutonic nations, were objects of notice among the Romans

who travelled north of Italy. Ovid, among the curiosities of Thrace, the place of his exile, describes the skins and close *breeches* of the inhabitants.

"Pellibus et sutis arcent malè frigora bracchis"....*De Trist. lib.* iii. 10.*

And it is perfectly well known that this customary dress of the Gauls, gave rise to a distinctive appellation of the south-western part of their country, which was called by the Romans *Gallia braccata*. The customary light dress of the Romans, which continued down to the ages of wealth and luxury, and therefore cannot be supposed to have been the effect of necessity, as it is among savage nations, furnishes strong evidence of the uniform mild temperature of ordinary winters in Italy.

Velleius Paterculus, lib. xi. ca. 105. mentions that the Roman troops, in the reign of Tiberius, kept their summer quarters, till December, in Germany, at the head of the Lippe, near the modern Paderborn, in Westphalia, and in the 52d degree of north latitude.—This was favorable to the operations of the campaign, as the author remarks; and indicates a climate as temperate as in modern days. Yet at that time, the historian informs us, the Alps were almost impassable by reason of snow.

Xenophon, in his Anabasis or Expedition of Cyrus, has described the sufferings of the troops in their retreat through Armenia, four centuries before the christian era, from great quantities of snow and severe frost. The snow in one place, he says, was a fathom in depth: and many horses and slaves, and some soldiers died—others lost their limbs by the frost....*Book* 4. Three days before the snow fell, the troops forded the Euphrates, with the water to their navel.

The troops of Lucullus experienced inconveniences from the same cause, in the same country, during the war against Mithridates. Plutarch informs us, in his life of that General, that before the winter equinox, the weather grew tempestuous and great quantities of snow fell; that the soldiers, marching in the woods, were wet by snow which fell from the trees—but at the same time,

* This line is repeated, lib. 5. vii. with the change of *sutis* to *laxis*, loose breeches, or trowsers.

he says, they were obliged to encamp at night in *wet* and *miry* places—so that it was not cold enough to freeze water. But we must not conclude from these facts that the climate of that country is altered; for Chardin and Tournefort, in the 17th and 18th centuries, found the temperature of the winter precisely as described by Xenophon and Plutarch. Chardin informs us, that when he passed Caucasus, the snow was, in some places, ten feet deep—his guides wore snow shoes, and in some places, shovelled for him a path. At Tefflis, on the river Kur, it snowed all day, when he first arrived; and he repeatedly mentions that the mountains of Armenia and Georgia, which are in the 40th, 41st and 42d degrees of north latitude, are never destitute of snow....*See pages* 166, 171, 241, 242, 247, 413. *Lond. fol.* 1686.

Tournefort arrived at Erzeron, at the foot of a mountain near the head of the Euphrates, in the 40th degree of latitude, on the 15th of June, and found the neighboring hills covered with snow. The nights were so cold that his fingers were too numb to write, until an hour after sunrise. The wheat harvest was in September..... *See his Travels, vol.* iii. *p.* 75, 81, 82, 94, 102, 107, *&c. Lond.* 8*vo.* 1741.

At Erivan, in the 41st degree of latitude, says Chardin, the winter lasts long, so that it sometimes snows in April; the country produces wine in abundance, but the people are obliged to cover the vines in winter....*p.* 247. From these authorities we may infer that the winter temperature of Armenia and Georgia has not abated within 2000 years.*

It has been already remarked that snow formerly fell occasionally in Greece, even in the Peloponnese; and the most credible testimonies agree that mount Ida, in

* Herodotus, book i. relates that at Babylon, which was in a mild climate, far south of Armenia, the ancient inhabitants did not cultivate the vine, olive and fig; but he insinuates that this neglect was owing to the peculiar fitness of the soil for corn. That it could not be on account of the climate, is certain; for the same author relates that the palm tree was cultivated with success; and caprification was then practiced as in modern times. Herodotus also says, that palm wine was an article of merchandize, transported from Armenia down the Euphrates, in boats made of willows covered with skins.

Crete, was always clothed with snow....*Plin. Nat. Hist. lib.* 16. *ca.* 33. *Theophrast. Hist. Plant. lib.* 4. *ca.* 1. Tournefort visited this isle in his voyage to the Levant, and testifies that the inhabitants of Canea fetch their snow, in summer, from the neighboring mountains; and he confirms the assertion of Theophrast and Pliny, that the cyprus grows there among the snow. At the foot of these mountains grow figs, olives and other delicate fruits, as they did in the earliest ages.—*Tournefort, Let.* 1.

In Milo, says the same traveller, *Let.* 4. it never freezes and *very rarely snows;* when it does, the snow melts in a quarter of an hour; the cold is not prejudicial to the olive trees, as it is in Provence and Languedoc, where the contexture of the bark is torn by the dilatation of the water which freezes in the pores.

When Tournefort visited Samos in February, he found the cold severe on the mountains, and on the 23d of the month, some snow and a great deal of hail....*Vol.* ii. *let.* 3.

On mount Olympus, in Asia Minor, says the same author, nothing is to be seen but old snow in a very great quantity. This was in November. He also says, that a river which runs by Tocat, does much injury when swelled by rain, or the melting of snow....*Letter* 9.

The river Meles, says Chandler in his travels, ch. xx, which washes Smyrna, swells into a torrent, after heavy rains on the mountains, or the melting of snow. The houses in Smyrna, except those erected by Europeans, seldom have chimneys; but in cold weather, a pan of charcoals, under a table covered with a carpet, serves to warm the family.—The same author mentions snow upon the summits of mountains, as he passed from Smyrna to Ephesus, Miletus, and Laodicea, as late as March and April....*See his Travels, 4to. Oxford*, 1775. *pages* 71, 80, 105, 164, 221, 224.

The same author, vol. 2. p. 79. speaks of snow on the mountains of Attica. The Illissus, he says, in summer is quite dry; and while he resided at Athens, he several times visited the river, after snow had fallen on the mountains, in hopes to see it fill its banks. He ob-

serves also that the Cephissus is a small stream, and absorbed before it reaches the sea, except after the melting of snow, or a heavy rain. In describing the dress of the modern Greeks, he mentions in addition to their ordinary garments, a long vest, which they hang on their shoulders, lined with wool or fur for cold weather.... *Vol.* 2. *p.* 110, 119.

This author further states that when the mountains in Attica are covered with snow, the woodcocks descend into the plain; and if the ground continues froze and the weather severe, they enter the gardens, and are so tame as sometimes to be taken by the hand....*p.* 127. *See also p.* 163. On his journey to Delphi, in the beginning of July, he found the summits of the mountains white with snow; and Parnassus is covered with perennial snow....*p.* 260, 270. This confirms the account which Homer gives of the climate of Dodona, which he calls very cold....*Iliad.* 11. *v.* 750.

All these authorities prove beyond a question that the climate of Greece and Asia Minor, in modern days, corresponds well with the representations given of it in ancient history.*

There is a passage in Pliny, *Nat. Hist. lib.* ii. 50, which, after assigning reasons why there is no thunder in cold countries in winter,† expressly declares that the climate of Italy is always mild. "Mobilior aer mitiore hyeme, et æstate nimbosa, semper quodam modo vernat vel autumnat,"—always exhibiting the verdure of spring or the mildness of autumn. He says, chapter 47th of the same book, that the swallows appear by the 24th of February. This account corresponds with what has been

* There is a passage of Herodotus, in Euterpe, which indicates that snow sometimes fell in his native country, Halicarnassus; for he asserts that a fall of snow must be followed, in five days, by rain. This remark represents the climate of that country nearly as it is at present.

† Herodotus, in Melpomene, mentions the same fact, in describing Scythia. This is known to be correct at this day. In northern climates, there is no thunder in winter—but in Italy and Greece, thunder is known only in winter or spring. This fact, corresponding with the statements of Herodotus and Pliny, proves the climates of Italy and Greece to be the same as in their days.

before remarked, respecting the germination of plants in the same month.

There is a passage in Joseph (Jewish War. b. 3. ch. 10,) which describes the climate near the lake of Gennesareth, as remarkably mild and pleasant; and after mentioning its fruitfulness in palm-trees, olives and figs, it is said that grapes and figs are supplied from the trees for ten months in the year. How incompatible is this description with the supposed rigor of the ancient winters in Judea!

Tacitus informs us, *Hist. lib.* 3. 59. that Vespasian's army, in passing the Appenine to quell a revolt in winter, suffered severe distresses from cold and snow. But we must recollect that the French army, but a few years past, suffered equally from the same causes, in the same country, on their march through the Neapolitan territories.

Pelloutier, in his history of the Celts, *book* i. *ch.* 12, asserts that in the time of the first Roman Emperors, "On ne recueilloit encore dans les Gaules, ni vin, ni huile, ni d'autres fruits, et cela à cause de la rigueur du climat, et du froid excessif qui y regnoit." He admits indeed that in Germany were some cultivated fields, but not one fruit tree, as such could not sustain the rigor of the cold. The boldness and positiveness of this writer, led me to recur to his authorities and examine them with care.

Strabo, a most diligent investigator, and accurate geographer, in the very passage cited by Pelloutier, overthrows the assertion of the latter author. "Narbonensian Gaul," says Strabo, "produces the same fruits as Italy. Proceeding to the north and the Cevennes, the country produces the same fruits, the fig and olive only excepted."—*Book* iv. § 2. This account corresponds with that of Pliny, as I have in my former dissertation stated at large; where it is proved that figs and olives grew, in the times of the first Emperors, in the province of Narbonne, which comprehended the more modern Provence and Dauphinè, and that north of that region they will not now thrive, nor are they cultivated. But all parts of Gaul, says Strabo, will produce the fruits

which grow in Italy, except the fig and the olive. Italy, it is agreed, produced figs, olives, and various kinds of wine. "Latium," says Strabo, *lib.* 5. "enjoys a mild climate and produces all kinds of fruits [πάμφορος] excepting the marshy lands on the sea coast, and some mountainous tracts; but even these produce abundant pasturage, many kinds of fruits, and even one excellent kind of wine."

Strabo, in his second book, makes very correct and judicious remarks on climate; stating that mountainous regions are colder than valleys and low plains. He mentions Bagadania, an elevated plain between mount Taurus and Argea, which produced scarcely any fruit trees, altho situated 3000 stadiums south of the Euxine, where, at Sinope, the country produced olives. This circumstance has not been sufficiently considered in estimating the descriptions of climates and seasons, in ancient authors. Strabo then observes, that upon the Boristhenes, now the Neiper, and in that part of Celtica which is *contiguous to the ocean*, the vine either will not grow or not produce fruit. Celtica was that part of Gaul which is comprehended between the Garonne and the Seine.... *Cesar. Com. hb.* 1. Now let it be remarked, that the vine is cultivated at this day, in the *maritime* part of France, to a very little distance north of the Loire, in the 48th degree of latitude, altho, in the interior country, it is cultivated with success to the 50th degree. Strabo's assertion therefore, with regard to Gaul, is almost literally verified by modern facts.*

Strabo then mentions the climate on the north of the Euxine, and the fact that, at the mouth of the Palus Maeotis, a general of Mithridates, with a body of horse, defeated the barbarians upon the ice, on the very spot, where in summer he defeated them in a naval engagement.

A fact of this sort is of no effect in settling the question respecting a change of climate, because we know

* See Young's Tour in France, vol. ii. ch. 3. and his map of the climate. Pausanias informs us that olives grew in Tithorea on mount Parnassus, which is in the 39th degree of latitude.....*Phocice. ch.* 32.

not whether the water in the strait of the sea of Azof annually congeals in winter into firm and solid ice, or whether the fact mentioned, was owing to an unusual occurrence, and related for that very reason. The circumstances naturally lead us to conclude that the ice in that year was stronger than usual, and that the winter was uncommonly severe.

Strabo then proceeds to state from Eratosthenes, the story of a brazen cup or vessel which had been burst by the freezing of water, and as an evidence of the fact, was preserved in the temple of Esculapius at Panticape, a town on the Cimmerian Bosphorus. He cites the inscription on the vessel of which the following is a translation. "If any man disbelieves what events have taken place among us, let him view this vessel and learn the truth—This vessel has been deposited here by Stratius, the priest, not as a gift to the gods, but as an evidence of a *very rigorous winter.*" [χειμωνος μεγαλου.] The translator has rendered these words by *immensi frigoris*, which would describe severe cold in general. But such mistakes of the meaning of original writers are the sources of many false theories. The Greek χειμων will not justify this translation—It signifies *winter*, and in connection with *great*, evidently denotes, in this place, an *unusual winter.* Strabo indeed speaks of the freezing of the Cimmerian Bosphorus, in general terms, and of large fishs' being dug out of ice, where they had been caught in nets; and if this should on inquiry be found to be the fact now, we ought not to be surprised, as that strait is in the latitude of Quebec. Severe as the cold was, the Greeks opened a communication with the nations on the north of the Euxine, and built cities on the coast, among which were Panticape, on the strait, and *Olbia*, on the Boristhenes near the mouth of the Hypanis, or Bog. From what circumstance, this town received its name, I know not; but it signifies *happy* or the pleasant residence.....*Strabo, lib.* 7. *D'Anville Anc. Geog.* ix.

That Germany would not produce fruit trees, at the christian era, must not be believed; for vines were cultivated in Gaul, as far north as the territory of the Se-

quani, since called Burgundy and Frenche Compté. And Strabo informs us, that a celebrated prince of the Getæ, after subduing some nations in Thrace and Pannonia, persuaded them to cut up their *vines* and live *without wine....Lib.* 7. Yet Thrace as well as Germany is represented by the Roman and Greek writers, as oppressed with intolerable cold.

That there is much inaccuracy and some exaggeration in the descriptions which ancient writers have given of the winters north of the Alps and the Danube, may be clearly proved by a comparison of these accounts one with another. Tacitus, a writer of great credit, says of Germany, "Terra, etsi aliquanto specie differt, in universum tamen aut silvis horrida, aut paludibus fœda."....*De Mor Germ.* 5. The country is *all* deformed with woods and morasses. He observes that the soil is "satis ferax," sufficiently fruitful; but "frugiferarum arborum impatiens," not fitted to produce fruit-bearing trees; yet in a subsequent section, he informs us that the inhabitants eat "agrestia poma," wild or uncultivated apples; and those who lived near the Rhine, purchased wine—"Proximi ripæ et vinum mercantur." If neither Gaul nor Germany produced wine, where did the dwellers on the Rhine procure it?

Tacitus informs us further, that the Germans cultivated land, chiefly indeed by their servants, old men and women, as the men preferred war to labor. But they raised barley and other grain, not only for food, but for drink; for their chief liquor was a species of beer or ale, made from fermented barley and other corn. The lands were cultivated by slaves, who lived upon the land, like tenants, and paid to their masters a certain part of the produce. How incompatible are these facts with the assertion that the country was all covered with forest and morasses! Nor is this account more compatible with the state of pasturage in Germany, which, as all authors agree, supported vast herds of cattle.

But to close all, Tacitus himself assigns reasons why Germany was not well cultivated, without resorting to the asperity of its climate. After stating that the inhabitants parcelled out the fields among themselves, *accord-*

ing to the rank of each individual, [a fact in which we see the germ of the feudal system] and that the fields lay fallow every other year, the author says, "nec enim cum ubertate et amplitudine soli labore contendunt, ut pomaria conserant, et prata separent, et hortos rigent sola terræ seges imperatur."—So that after charging the defect of fruit trees in Germany to the severity of the winters, this grave writer informs us that it is to be ascribed to the *want of labor.* The people were warlike, impatient of labor, and not having known the pleasures of luxury, they wanted only corn for subsistence. Here we have the whole truth.

But the passages in Ovid and Virgil, describing a Thracian winter, which I have before mentioned, require some consideration....*Ovid de Tristibus, lib.* 3. *El.* 10. *Virgil. Georg. lib.* 3. *v.* 355.

Ovid employs the whole of the 10th Elegy of his third book in describing the phenomena of a Scythian winter, as it appeared at Tomos, a town built by the Greeks, near the south bank of the Danube, on the Euxine. The passage is too long to be here transcribed; but the principal phenomena of the winter were, violent storms, deep snow, and frost so severe as to freeze wine in jars, and the Danube covered with solid ice, sufficient to sustain horses and cattle with waggons, or whatever might be the vehicles called *plaustra.* Virgil's description corresponds in general with Ovid's; and he adds that snow accumulated to the depth of seven [ulnos] cubits, about ten or eleven feet—that cattle perished with cold—and that deer, plunged in snow almost to the top of their horns, were killed with knives, not being able to escape.

On these descriptions, I would offer the following observations:

1. Some allowance must be made for the license of the poet. Exaggeration is admitted into verse for the purpose of exhibiting strong images to the mind; and when Virgil speaks of snow ten feet deep, it will be obvious that he must have had in view snow-drifts which often accumulate to that highth, in the middle latitudes of the earth, taking, as a poet naturally would, the most remarkable phenomenon as the subject of representa-

tion; or he must have intended to describe the piles of everlasting snow upon the mountains; or he must have described some very extraordinary snows in severe winters. Every man will at once perceive that no country would be habitable in winter, where the common depth of the snow should be ten feet upon a level. That the country of Thrace and Scythia, to the Tanais or Don, was inhabited by numerous tribes of men, who subsisted by hunting and pasturage, from the earliest times, is an indisputable fact; and the numerous flocks of cattle and horses kept by the Nomadic Scythians, long before the time of Virgil, is a powerful argument against the supposed severity of the winters in their climate; for they did not cultivate the earth to any considerable degree; and if the winters were of six or eight months duration, as ancient authors pretend, how was it possible for them to subsist their cattle?

The "semper hyems, semper spirantes frigora cauri" of Virgil, must therefore be intended for Mount Rhodope, which is still covered with snow the whole year, or it must be a poetical fiction.* In the same light must we view the representation Virgil gives of the mode of spending the winter in Scythia; where, he says, the inhabitants dug caves for their residence, and warmed them by rolling *whole oaks and elms* upon their fires. This and other parts of the description are evidently too high colored. But most of the phenomena described by Virgil and Ovid, are such as we observe in the northern parts of this country; and such as occur in New-England, in winters of uncommon severity. If these were the ordinary phenomena of the cold in the countries along the Danube, now comprehended in Bulgaria, Wallachia, Bessarabia and Hungary; and if such phenomena do not now occur in ordinary years, there must have been a change of climate. With regard to modern winters in

* Virgil begins his description with the country about Rhodope, but a part of it must refer to the polar regions, or be a poetical fiction. Indeed the ancients had but little knowledge of the country north of the Danube, and confounded various climates in general descriptions. Herodotus however informs us, that the land along the Boristhenes was very fruitful in corn. He also speaks of the *plowing* Scythians....*See his Melpomene*, 52, 53.

that region, I have very little information. It is certain, however, that the Danube still freezes; altho my information does not enable me to say to what degree.

2. My second observation is, that the freezing of wine does not imply great severity of cold. Madeira congeals at 10° above cypher by Farenheit; and the lighter wines of Italy, Greece and Asia Minor, would undoubtedly freeze with a less degree of cold.

3. The accounts which historians give, as well as Ovid, of the irruptions of the barbarians into Thrace and Italy, in winter, by means of a bridge of ice, and the drawing of their *plaustra* upon the ice and snow, demonstrate that the snow was not of a depth beyond what is usual in New-England.

4. But we have, in Ovid's 12th elegy, more certain data to judge of the winters in Thrace. The poet, after indulging his fancy in describing the gloomy scenes of a Thracian winter, assumes a more cheerful air, and paints the beauties of the following spring. "Frigora jam zephyri minuunt," says Ovid, at the equinox. He then observes that the year past, the winter of Maeotis seemed longer than former winters. Whether he means longer than former winters in the same country, or whether, that being the first winter after his exile, the winter appeared longer to him than it had done in Italy, is not quite certain. If the former, the winter was unusually long, and probably unusually cold; and therefore not to be considered as a standard of the general temperature of ancient winters. If we are to understand the passage in the latter sense, the remark is rather trifling; for who could question that a winter in Thrace, would not appear longer to any man than a winter in Italy; and especially to a wretched exile, forced from his family, his country, and all his former enjoyments?

But we must not pass unobserved the facts mentioned by the poet at this time—the spring equinox.

Now the merry youth, says Ovid, gather violets, which the uncultivated earth produces; the meads are decorated with blossoms of various hue, and the woods resound with the melody of birds. To this he adds that the swallows appeared and built nests *sub trabibus*. If

swallows appeared in Thrace, immediately after the equinox, the spring must then have been three or four weeks earlier than in New-England; for they do not appear here till late in April. The same fact is indicated by the blossoming of plants. These representations of the poet appear to be important in settling this question.

Several passages in the most respectable ancient authors, leave us no room to question, that not only the Cimmerian Bosphorus, the Don and Boristhenes, but that the Danube and Rhine were, in winter, covered with ice sufficient to bear the heaviest loads, and that armies often crossed them on the ice. These facts are diriectly asserted in the following passages....*Herodotus in Melpomene*, 28—*Xiphilin's Epit. of Dion. Cassius, M. Ant.*—*Herodian, lib.* 6—*Pausanias, lib.* 8, *cap.* xxviii.—*Jornandes De Rebus Geticis.* 55—*Ammianus Marcellinus, lib.* 31. *ca.* x.

Herodotus speaks of the Euxine Sea and the Cimmerian Bosphorus. Ovid asserts the like fact of the Danube, and probably intended that part of the river which is near its mouth. Pausanias mentions the Hypanis, now the Bog, the Boristhenes, now the Neiper, the Ister, or Danube and the Rhine. The other authors speak of the Danube and Rhine near their sources in the south of Germany and Helvetia. These writers represent the freezing of these rivers as common events—at least they make no discrimination between winters; and Herodian, in the passage cited, says of the Rhine and Danube, φυσις μεν δη των ποταμων αυτη---*This is the nature of those rivers.* He speaks of these rivers as they were in the country, which now comprehends the dominions of Austria, Bavaria and Swabia; for it was in those countries, where the barbarians usually crossed the rivers to invade the Roman empire.

The ice however was not always sufficiently strong to sustain armies; for about the year before Christ 175, a body of Bastarnians, returning from an irruption into Dardania, attempted to cross the Danube on the ice and were almost all drowned....*Baker's Livy, book* 41.

How frequently the Rhine and Danube, in the same countries, are covered with ice of similar strength in

modern days, I know not—for unfortunately modern travellers furnish little information on the subject. Pelloutier, who has cited most of the authorities of antiquity on this subject, says, the freezing of the Rhine, the Danube, the Elbe, the Weser, and the Oder, in such a manner as to sustain armies, is now an extraordinary event, which happens scarcely once in ten years—"La chose arrivera à peine une fois dans dix ans."....*Hist. des Celts. lib.* 1. *ch.* 12. But Cluver says, "Danubius in Germania glaciem fert."....*Lib.* i. 12. The Danube in Germany bears or is covered with ice.

Let it be remarked that at the battle of Austerlitz, Dec. 2, the Russian troops were said to have crossed a lake on the ice. Bonaparte, in his account of the action, represented that most of them fell through the ice and were drowned; but by the official Russian account, it appears that the troops passed over in safety.

Let it be further remarked that Cesar, in his history of his seven campaigns in Gaul, during which his troops were often disturbed in winter by insurrections of the inhabitants, which obliged them to leave their winter quarters, and march great distances, tho he often mentions the extreme hardships suffered by his troops in these marches, and particularly the difficulty of transporting baggage, has not mentioned the word *snow* [nivis] in a single instance, if my memory does not deceive me, except when speaking of the march over the Cevennes; and on these mountains, snow falls in modern days to a depth equal to that mentioned by Cesar....*See Pinkerton Geog. France.*

But whatever may be the fact with respect to the climate of Germany, there is positive evidence that the rivers in Greece and Italy did not freeze to any considerable degree at the christian era. Pausanias, after mentioning the freezing of the Danube and other northern rivers, describes the water of the rivers in Arcadia as fit for bathing even in winter....*Lib.* viii. 28. Herodian, speaking of the discontents (on account of the climate,) which prevailed among the troops of Commodus, who performed service on the Danube, and who complained that they had frozen water to drink, speaks of the rivers

of Italy, by way of contrast, as cool flowing streams.... *Lib.* 1. But our best authority is Ovid, who, after relating the fact that the "Sarmatic cattle draw carriages upon the Danube," declares, "Vix equidem credar" —"I shall hardly be believed;" yet he adds, "when a witness has no motive to misrepresent facts, credit is due to his testimony." Now if the freezing of rivers to such a degree as to sustain carriages and cattle appeared incredible to the inhabitants of Italy, to one of whom Ovid was writing, it amounts to full proof that the Italians had never seen such a phenomenon, in their own country. This disproves utterly the degree of cold in ancient Italy, which modern writers have supposed, and confirms what I have before suggested, that the instance of the freezing of the Tiber mentioned by Livy, was an extraordinary event, which excited general surprise, like our winter of 1780. Indeed, all the descriptions of the rigorous winters in Thrace, Germany and Gaul, being given by historians and poets who were accustomed to the mild climates of Greece and Italy, wear the features of exaggeration, which must have been impressed upon them by the astonishment of the writers. These facts seem to decide the question, that the winters in Greece and Italy were, 2000 years ago, as mild as they are in this age—and that if any change has ever taken place in those countries, it must have been anterior to the age of the writers mentioned. Indeed Columella, De Re Rustica, lib. i. 61. mentions the opinion of an author, that such a change had taken place—and cites as a proof of it, the fact that vines and olives would thrive in countries where the cold, in preceding ages, had prevented their cultivation. I am satisfied, however, that although the *draining* and *drying* of land is often necessary to the cultivation of particular fruits, yet most of what has been charged to *cold*, ought to be ascribed to the *indolence* or *military spirit* of savage men, who preferred war and hunting to agriculture.

In addition to what I have said, on the subject of the winters in America, I have a few remarks to cite from two writers of undoubted credit.

John Megapolensis, a Dutch clergyman, who resided at Albany, and wrote an account of the Mohawks, in 1644, a translation of which is in Hazard's Collection, vol. i. 517, says, of the climate, "the summers are pretty hot, and the winters very cold. The summer continues till All Saints' Day, (Nov. 1,) but then the winter sets in, in the same manner as it commonly does in December, and freezes so much in one night that the ice will bear a man. The freezing commonly continues *three months*—sometimes there comes a warm and pleasant day, yet the thaw does not continue; but it freezes again till March, and then commonly the river begins to open, seldom in February." According to this account, the winters have not moderated; for the Hudson, at Albany, usually freezes early in December, and continues closed till March. A common winter is of three months duration.

Professor Kalm, who came to America in 1748, was very particular in his inquiries on this subject; and to the best information he could obtain, he added his own observations. He relates, vol. i. p. 21. Lond. 1772. that at Newcastle, the Delaware seldom froze in winter so as to obstruct navigation; but at Philadelphia, that river was, almost every winter, covered with ice, so as to interrupt navigation for some weeks together. In page 36, he says, the climate of Philadelphia was then temperate; the winter was not over severe, and its duration short—September and October were like August in Sweden, and the first days in February frequently as pleasant as the end of April and beginning of May in the middle of Sweden.

In page 38 he says, the only disadvantage which the trade of Philadelphia suffers, is, the freezing of the river almost every winter for a month or more. In page 83 he states, that the winters he spent in the country were none of the coldest, but common ones, and that during his stay, the Delaware was not covered with ice strong enough to bear a carriage. In the next page, he adds, that the winters, tho severe, did not continue above two months, and at Philadelphia, sometimes less. Cherries were ripe about the 25th of May—(probably old style.)

In page 197, the author, speaking of New-York, states that the *harbor is good, and never froze except in extraordinary cold weather;* but he says, page 208, the winters at New-York are much more severe than in Pennsylvania. He says afterwards, that the ice *stands on the Hudson several months*, by which he must mean the ice on that river in the interior country. January 21, 1749, people walked over the Delaware at Philadelphia on the ice; but no one ventured to ride over on horseback. But in page 362, the author informs us, that the river was covered with ice soon after new year, and the ice became so strong that people rode over on horseback—the ice continued to the 8th of February, when the river was cleared.

The old men, of whom Kalm made inquiries respecting a change in the seasons, all agreed in the fact, that when the country was first settled, the weather was more uniform than it was in their time. Most of them were of opinion, that more snow fell when they were young; that the winters began earlier; and that the springs were also earlier. It was a saying among the old Swedes, that they had always grass at Easter, whether early or late.

Mr. Norris, one of the first settlers of Philadelphia, and a merchant, related, that in his younger years, the Delaware was usually covered with ice by the middle of November, old style. One old Swede, who remembered the very severe winter of 1697-8, was of opinion, there had been little change in the winters—that there were as great storms and as cold winters in his old age as in his childhood.

Kalm, however, in his second volume, page 43, institutes a comparison between Old and New Sweden, as he terms the two countries, in which he mentions, among the disadvantages of New Sweden, or Delaware and Pennsylvania, that the nights are darker than in Old Sweden, where they are in part illuminated by snow and the lumen boreale. In this paragraph he says expressly, that the winters bring no permanent snow in Pennsylvania, to make the nights clear and travelling safe. The cold, he says, is often intense as in Old Sweden; but

the snow which falls lies only a few days, and always goes off with a great deal of wet.

From a careful comparison of these facts, it appears that the weather, in modern winters, is more inconstant, than when the earth was covered with wood, at the first settlement of Europeans in the country; that the warm weather of autumn extends farther into the winter months, and the cold weather of winter and spring encroaches upon the summer; that the wind being more variable, snow is less permanent, and perhaps the same remark may be applicable to the ice of the rivers. These effects seem to result necessarily from the greater quantity of heat accumulated in the earth in summer, since the ground has been cleared of wood, and exposed to the rays of the sun; and to the greater depth of frost in the earth in winter, by the exposure of its uncovered surface to the cold atmosphere.

But we can hardly infer, from the facts that have yet been collected, that there is, in modern times, an actual diminution of the aggregate amount of cold in winter, on either continent.

No. II.

A DISSERTATION

ON THE PRODUCTION OF VAPOR;

In which it is attempted to explain some curious phenomena that attend its ascent.

BY ELIZUR WRIGHT, ESQ.

WATER has, till lately, been considered by philosophers as an uncompounded substance; and has accordingly been classed among the elements. Some of the phenomena of water, on this principle, have been of inexplicable solution. How it could come to pass, that so ponderous a body as water should be raised and sustained in the lighter air in the form of vapor, was long viewed as a mystery. The fruitful imagination of philosophers has, however, invented several hypotheses to account for this wonderful process of nature. It has been considered, that the gravity of bodies diminishes, cæteris paribus, in proportion as the cubes of their diameters, that is, as their solid content; but their resistance in a fluid, or their capacity of being supported by it, diminishes only as the squares of their diameters, that is, as their surfaces. Hence, since the gravity decreases in a higher ratio than the resistance, by diminishing the bulk of any heavy body, it may be made to swim in a

fluid of any given rarity—for instance, water, or even air. Thus gold, and other heavy metals, when sufficiently comminuted, are observed to be suspended and swim in water; and if the difference between the solid content and the surface of the pieces is sufficiently increased, they may be sustained and made to float even in air.

Others have imagined, that vapor arises upon the principles of the capillary tube. They suppose that the particles of the atmosphere are so disposed as to form an indefinite number of tubular interstices, which act in the nature of a filter; and raise up, by the attraction of cohesion, the minute columns of water that compose clouds. They have compared this phenomenon to tallow that rises in the wicks of candles; and to tubes of sand or ashes, that will raise water to the height of several feet.

Others again have maintained, that vapor consists of bubbles of water, filled with rarefied air. These balloons of nature's workmanship, they conceive to ascend and sail along in the atmosphere, until by some accident they burst, and fall down in rain.

Each of these hypotheses are liable to objections, that cannot easily be removed; and appear to be insufficient to explain the phenomena.

Water has been found to be a compound substance, consisting of 85 parts of oxygen, and 15 parts of hydrogen. Its natural state is ice: by its combination with caloric, it is rendered fluid. Both by natural and artificial methods, water may be converted into air, and air into water. One of the nutritive principles of vegetables, and, as has been proved by experiment, the only one in some, is water. By the digestive power of the plant, the water that is absorbed by it, is decomposed. While the hydrogen, modified by the organic system peculiar to the plant, is retained to nourish and form a part of it; the oxygen transpires through the parenchymous part of the leaves, and forms vital air. Thus water is converted to air by a natural process. Vegetable fermentation, and animal putrefaction, produce hydrogen gas; and whenever it is extricated, it immediately combines

with vital air, and generates water. But, from the circumstances under which hydrogen gas is produced, it can by no means be supposed to exist in so large quantities, as to generate the abundant vapor that exists. Large quantities of vapor daily ascend from the surface of rivers, ponds, lakes, and seas. Doct. Halley found, that in the summer season, there arises in vapor at a medium, daily, from every square foot of the surface of water half a pint, from every square mile 6914 tons, and from the Mediterranean sea 5,280,000,000 tons. This prodigious quantity of water is not changed into air. Nature affords no re-agent to decompose it. The conversion of water into air, and air into water, appears therefore not to be the *grand process of nature*, by which clouds are formed, and precipitated in rain. Though by the elimination of hydrogen gas, and its combination with pure air, a small quantity of vapor may be generated, we are to look somewhere else for the principal cause of the production of vapor.

To make water ascend in vapor, it seems necessary that some alteration in its texture should take place, that should render it so porous as to be specifically lighter than air. The alteration in the texture of bodies, is either under such circumstances, that their very constitution and nature is changed; in which case the attraction between the two bodies that unite, is strong, and they undergo a chymical combination; or the body, whose texture is altered, retains all its former properties; and pretty readily quits the substance it is united with. The attraction here is weak, and the process is termed by chymists *solution*. Solution is the disappearance of a solid in a liquid; or it is the change of a solid to a liquid, or to gas, without any alteration in the nature of the body dissolved. Water and fire are the great solvents or menstrua that nature furnishes. Corpuscular attraction, or what the chymists term affinity, is commonly said to take place between the integrant parts of bodies, when in contact only; but this is not strictly true. The constituent particles of bodies attract each other, when at a small distance; though that distance may be so small as to be insensible. The nearer the integrant parts of a

body approach each other, the stronger will be their affinity. Every thing that tends to remove these integrant parts from each other, diminishes their affinity. Fire produces this effect upon most known bodies. And it not only diminishes their affinity, but being itself the lightest of all substances, and rendering the bodies it unites with more porous, it greatly inereases their levity. By the agency of fire, metals and ice are changed from their natural solid state to that of a liquid. The power of attraction is balanced by the opposite force of heat; the liquid state appears to be the point of the equilibrium between these two forces. By increasing the heat, most bodies are reduced to a state of gas. If we attend to the method that nature pursues, we shall find, that water is reduced to a state of vapor, and its texture is so altered as to become specifically lighter than air, by the agency of fire. Evaporation is, therefore, *a dissolution of water by fire.* The various substances that compose the universe are, therefore, subjected to a general law on the one hand, that tends to bring them together; and to a powerful agent on the other hand, which tends to remove them from each other. It is upon the respective energy of these two forces, that the consistence of all bodies depends. Whether heat or caloric is truly possessed of a repulsive principle, or whether it produces this effect only by its endeavor to combine with bodies, forcing the constituent particles to separate and recede from each other, and diminishing their force of aggregation, I shall not undertake to determine. A certain degree of affinity exists between most substances and caloric, but this degree in different substances is very various. It is therefore unequally dispersed in bodies, some absorbing and retaining it in greater, and some in less quantities. By contemplating the circumstances that attend its combination, we are led to conclude, that the component particles of bodies are surrounded with a caloric atmosphere or investiture, more or less extensive, according to their respective attraction. The parts of this atmosphere more distant from the particle thus invested, being but weakly attracted, will easily abandon it to restore an equilibrium of heat, and will then become free or ther-

mometrical heat. But the parts that are nearer will be obstinately retained, and will not quit it; they have become chymically united with it; the heat will not be perceptible, and is called *latent heat.* Hence arises an easy solution of the difficulty some have started against the doctrine, that vapor is a solution of water by fire. They say, if it be allowed that fire rarefies water to such a degree as to render it specifically lighter than air, upon its ascending, the fire will abandon the water, to restore an equilibrium to the cooler air; and the water will return to its former gravity, and be precipitated; therefore, say they, water cannot be made to ascend in vapor upon this principle. But it must be considered, that a greater degree of affinity exists between water and caloric, than there does between air and caloric. Hence, though a part of the caloric may quit the particle of vapor to restore an equilibrium to the cooler air; yet a large portion of it being chymically united to the water, and, in respect to the air, becoming latent heat, a sufficient quantity will be retained to render it specifically lighter than air; therefore the particle of vapor will ascend.

A curious phenomenon attending the generation of vapor, is the production of cold. Whenever heat is increased and accumulated in one place, it is diminished, and withdrawn from the parts adjacent. Water, in passing from a solid or icy, to a liquid state, and from a liquid state to vapor, attracts the caloric from the contiguous substances. In combustion, the matter of heat is either extricated from its fixed state in the combustible substance, or, as it sometimes happens, it is attracted from the adjacent parts, which are consequently made cooler by the process. This principle has been applied to many useful and economical purposes. The Hungarians, when they travel through the hot deserts, dig a pit about two feet in depth, and bury their bottles of wine in it, covering them over again very close: then they burn straw or reeds over the place, and when the fire is out, they dig up their wine as cool as if it had been put into the coolest water. This fact is related in the Philos. Trans. of the Royal Society, No. 452. The inhabitants of China, India, Persia and Egypt, cool their liquors, used for drink,

by evaporation. The water intended to be cooled is put into very porous vessels, and exposed to the sun, or to a current of warm air. In experiments made by Mr. Richmann in 1747, and inserted in the first volume of the Transactions of the Imperial Academy of Petersburg, a thermometer taken out of water and exposed to air of equal temperature, descended and remained below the height indicated by the water, until the bulb became dry, when it regained its former height. If the ball of a thermometer be wrapped in fine linen, and kept moist by sprinkling with ether, and the evaporation be facilitated by agitation in the air, the thermometer will descend to 0. Doct. Franklin has proved, that when the body perspires copiously, it is less heated than surrounding bodies; and that perspiration alway produces a certain degree of coldness. A surprizing degree of cold is produced by a solution of the crystallized salts. By using a saline mixture composed of eleven parts of dry pulverized Sal Ammoniac, ten parts of dry pulverized Nitre, sixteen parts of Glauber's Salts, and thirty-two parts of water, Mr. Walker has brought the thermometer to eight degrees below 0.

Another remarkable phenomenon attending the formation and ascent of vapor is, that the less the gravity of the air is, the more copiously is the vapor exhaled, and the greater its specific gravity. Chaptal observes, that evaporation is more speedy in proportion as the pressure of the air is less upon the surface of the fluid. The Abbè Rochon has applied this principle to distillation with singular advantage. It was found by the Abbè Mongez and Mr. Lamanow, that ether evaporated with prodigious facility upon the peak of Teneriffe. The same fact was observed by Mr. Saussure on the mountains of Switzerland. Whilst Doct. Halley was making his observations for a catalogue of the Southern stars, on the tops of the mountains in the island of St. Helena, such an uncommon quantity of vapor fell there in dew, as very much impeded his business, by covering his glasses over in six or seven minutes. In the account of an uncommon darkness on May 19th, 1780, contained in the first volume of the Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sci-

ences, there is mentioned a very curious observation on the ascent and situation of the vapor, which arose at that time, made by a gentleman at Pepperell. "About nine o'clock (says he) in the morning, after a shower, the vapors arose from the springs in the low lands in great abundance. I took notice of one large column, that ascended with great rapidity to a considerable height above the highest hills, and soon spread into a large cloud; then moved off a little to the Westward. A second cloud was formed in the same manner from the same springs, but did not ascend so high as the first: and a third was formed in the same places in less than a quarter of an hour after the second." One of the gentlemen who observed here, mentions a circumstance of somewhat a singular nature.—"Whilst the darkness continued, (says he) the clouds were in quick motion, interrupted, skirted one over another; so as apparently, and I suppose really, to form a considerable number of *strata*." As to the state of the atmosphere, Professor Williams, who gave the account, observes, "that its gravity was gradually decreasing the bigger part of the day." At Bradford, about thirty miles North of Cambridge, and nearly under the same meridian, the mercury in the Barometer stood at 6 o'clock, A. M. at 29 inches 82; at 10h. 20m. it was at 29 inches 68; and at 10h. 45m. it stood at 29 inches 67; at 12h. 15m. the mercury had fallen to 29 inches 65.—Farenheit's thermometer at Bradford, at 6 o'clock, A. M. was at 39°. At 12 oclock it stood at 51°. At Cambridge, at 12 o'clock, it was 51° 1-2.

These phenomena are the more noticeable, because they seem to take place contrary to the received law in hydrostatics, that *the tendency of a body to ascend or descend, in a fluid, is proportional to the difference between the specific gravity of the body, and that of the fluid.*—Therefore the denser a fluid is, the greater will be the facility with which a given body will ascend in it. We should be led to conclude from this, that the evaporation would be the most abundant, when the gravity of the atmosphere is the greatest. But the reverse of this happens. What cause can be assigned that can produce so unexpected an effect? If it should be said that when

the gravity of the atmosphere is increased, it prevents the rise of vapor by its pressure upon the water, it might be replied, 1st. That the pressure is not such as to prevent even a small force from agitating the surface of the water, and if it is incompressible, and alway of the same density, no reason can be given, why an equal force should not dislodge as many aqueous corpuscles at one time as another. 2d. In water, a body will ascend with the same facility at the depth of an hundred feet, as at one; and if an increased pressure alters not the tendency of a body to ascend in water, it cannot in air.

The difference in the heights of the several strata of clouds observed by the gentleman at Pepperell, cannot easily be accounted for, on known principles. For as the gravity, and consequently the pressure of the atmosphere that morning was gradually decreasing, the vapors, which arose at the several times observed, as far as that cause had influence, would all gradually and equally expand; and would eventually ascend to an equal height. And as the heat was continually increasing, we should conclude that the column of vapor which arose last, would be more rarefied, and take the highest station, contrary to what was observed.

To account for these phenomena, it seems necessary to unfold some other principle; and from the several appearances that attend the formation and ascent of vapor, it is probably this; *that water is in a small degree compressible.* The contrary doctrine has been held by philosophers. But the experiments of Canton have proved, that the commonly received opinion is erroneous. He inclosed water in spherical glass vessels, from which a narrow neck proceeded, like that of a thermometer, the water was found to occupy a larger space when the pressure of the atmosphere was removed by the air-pump, and a less space when a greater pressure was added by the condenser. If water is compressible, it follows, that like the atmosphere, it has a variable density, decreasing more or less, according to the degree of compressibility, from the interior towards the exterior parts. In the atmosphere the density gradually decreases as we ascend from the earth. But in water the density is nearly uni-

form, till we come to the surface; where there appears to exist a stratum of water of a small insensible depth, so rare as to be nearly in a state of vapor.

The arguments and inductions from phenomena that conspire to prove the existence of this cause, are the following: 1st. Water is of an elastic compressible nature; therefore at the surface, where the attraction and pressure are the least, it will be more rare than at any assignable depth below, where the attraction and pressure are stronger, and consequently the water more dense. 2d. The affinity that exists between the particles of water among themselves, and also between the particles of water and caloric, is very strong; and vastly stronger than that between the particles of air, or that between air and caloric. If there were not a powerful attraction between the particles of water, when a strong heat is applied, the whole body of it would undergo a simultaneous expansion like air, and be dissipated in vapor at once. And if caloric did not possess a stronger attraction for water than for air, it would abandon the particles of vapor to unite with the air; hence the position is evident. 3d. The force of attraction between the particles of water is such, that when the whole cause is applied, the contrary force of heat is but just sufficient to balance it; this is apparent from the small degree in which water is capable of being compressed. 4th. Hence it will follow as a consequence, that water will soon attain to nearly a uniform density. For a particle is attracted not only by the one next to it, but by several adjacent ones. But at the surface, on account of the absence of the particles above, they will be less attracted, and consequently will range themselves at a greater distance; there will therefore be a stratum at the surface, much more rarefied than water in its common state. This rarefaction will be surprizingly increased by the investiture of caloric, which the particles of water are then in a situation to assume. At any sensible depth the affinity of aggregation is so strong, that it squeezes out and excludes the caloric; which will nevertheless, for the reasons before mentioned, be retained at the surface. This also accounts for the cooling process in evaporation. As fast as the matter of heat

is thrown off in vapor, more is drawn from the neighboring parts, and propelled to the surface by the endeavor of the particles of water to come into union. And I suspect that like other fluids, having formed a current, it continues the same for a while after an equilibrium is restored. There are some phenomena of nature, that seem to indicate this; and cannot well be explained without the supposition. Unless it be admitted that there exists a stratum of rarefied water at the surface, it cannot well be conceived how any evaporation can take place. We cannot say how those small portions of water, that constitute particles of vapor, can be torn off and detached from the body of water; unless by the agency of heat the integrant parts are first separated to a greater distance from each other, and the affinity of aggregation thereby weakened. A small force, such as the agitation occasioned by the motion of the air, the action of the solar rays, or ebullition, will then be sufficient to throw off the water in minute particles; but if it should remain in its common state of density, the particles would be so strongly held down by attraction, as not to be dislodged by these causes. But the whole body of water is not thus rarefied; there must, therefore, exist a rarefied stratum at the surface, as a foundation for the formation of particles of vapor. The depth and rarity of this vaporific stratum, varies with the state of the atmosphere. When the air has a greater specific gravity, it so compresses as to render it less rare, and of less depth, than when the air possesses less gravity. This superficial stratum is of a variable density, increasing from the exterior toward the interior parts; this is evident, and results from the elasticity of the fluid. A particle of vapor is an assemblage of the exceedingly minute particles of water, rarefied by heat to such a degree as to be lighter than air, and increasing in density from the surface toward the central parts. When such a particle is detached from the body of water, it parts with a portion of its caloric, which before was retained by the attraction of the water. It hence arises that the gravity of vapor is, cœteris paribus, proportional to the magnitude of its particles. Since this rarefied stratum at the surface of water is necessary to the

avulsion and detachment of the particles of vapor, the more it is rarefied; and the greater its depth, the more copious will be the exhalation. But this takes place, when the atmosphere has the greatest levity. Hence the phenomenon that evaporation is the most abundant, when the specific gravity of the atmosphere is the least. When the depth of the vaporific stratum is small, the lower particles will be strongly drawn down and held by corpuscular attraction, so that the causes which produce a separation will not be able to dislodge and generate particles of the larger size; but when it has a greater thickness, the attraction is so small as to be overcome at a greater depth, and particles of vapor of a larger bulk will be formed. The magnitude therefore of the particles, will be in proportion to the depth of the stratum. To account for the different heights that the columns of vapor, observed by the gentleman at Pepperell, assumed, it may be considered that when the first column arose, the air was dense, and the vaporific stratum consequently of small depth; the particles of vapor would therefore be small, and as their levity is in proportion to their smallness, they would mount up to a greater height. The gravity of the atmosphere was considerably diminished when the second column arose, and the consequent increase in the depth of the vaporific stratum admitted the formation of larger particles of vapor; but as the specific gravity of vapor is proportional to the magnitude of its particles, it must, on account of its gravity, take a lower station agreeable to observation.

No. III.

AN ACCOUNT

OF THE WHITTEN PLASTER.

SHARON, *7th Jan.* 1800.

SIR,

I HEREWITH submit to the examination of the Academy a sample of stone, called by our farmers *Whitten Plaster*, from the name of the discoverer, one Thomas Whitten, of Kent. Searching for iron ore upon his own farm, he, about two years since, came across an inexhaustible quarry of this stone. It is found to be an excellent manure; and though manifestly not a gypseous earth, yet it is not inferior to the Plaster of Paris in its effects upon indian corn, and in certain soils, upon clover. It is less friable than the Plaster, but the proprietor has erected a mill of curious construction, near the quarry, in which it is easily pulverized; and such is the increasing demand for it, that he anticipates much profit from the discovery. Possessing no chemical apparatus, it has not been in my power to make by any means, a complete analysis of this stone. From the slight attempts I have made to decompose it, I am satisfied it is composed of the *sulphuric acid* in no small proportion, *plumbago*, and *siliceous earth*. *Plumbago, in a simple state, is frequently found in the interstices of the quarry.

If I have rightly conjectured its composition, this stone possesses nothing in common with gypsum, excepting

* A small quantity of this is also forwarded.

the *vitriolic acid.* But as its fertilizing effects are the same, or nearly so, it goes far to demonstrate the correctness of an opinion I have long entertained, that the vitriolic acid, by some considered hostile to vegetation, is in truth the only operative ingredient in gypsum. This acid, chemists inform us, will attract six times its weight of water from the atmosphere, before it will be saturated. Now the Plaster of Paris, which is said to contain thirty parts in one hundred, of this acid, produces no effect but on sandy or gravelly soils. It should seem that as fast as the acid attracts the moisture, the thirsty soil receives it, and in this way the plaster becomes a faithful and excellent conductor of humidity to the plant. Whatever may be the cause, it is certain that a small quantity of pulverized gypsum, exposed upon a dry stone to the open air, in a warm and clear day, will presently by the attraction of water from the air, become a mere paste. It is difficult to account for its astonishing effects upon vegetation in many parts of our country, on any other hypothesis.

My principal object in making this communication, is, to obtain a more perfect analysis of this newly discovered manure, in hopes it may be employed to advantage upon the sea-coast, where, I am informed, gypsum produces no visible effect.

The paper No. 2, contains stones of a singular form and appearance, sent me by a gentleman in Winchester, to be communicated. He informs me they are found in considerable quantities in that town, sometimes in large masses, which, when struck with a sledge, will fly into pieces of different sizes, retaining uniformly the hexagonal figure. From their assuming universally the form of hexagonal prisms, and from their transparency and hardness, I conclude they must be, if not the *rock crystal*, at least a very pure species of *silex*. But of whatever substance they are composed, it is possible in the hands of a skilful lapidary, they may be turned to a good account. I am, Sir, respectfully,

Your obedient servant,

JOHN C. SMITH.

S. Baldwin, Esq. *Rec. Sec. Ac. Ar. Sci.*

No. IV.

SKETCH

Of the Mineralogy of the Town of New-Haven,

IN ANSWER TO THE FIFTH QUESTION OF THE CONNECTICUT ACADEMY OF ARTS AND SCIENCES.

IT will be advantageous to consider this subject under two divisions, which naturally arise out of the diversity of surface by which the territory belonging to the town of New-Haven is strongly marked.

I. OF THE PLAIN COUNTRY.

II. OF THE MOUNTAINOUS AND HILLY COUNTRY.

And I. OF THE PLAIN COUNTRY.

The city of New-Haven stands on the southern part of an extensive plain, bounded on all sides, excepting the south and south-west, by a circular range of elevated ground, rising, in most places, into high hills, and, in two instances, into mountains of considerable altitude. The mean diameter of this plain, which forms an irregular amphitheatre, has not been ascertained by correct measurement, but it probably does not exceed two and a half, or, at the most, three miles. Two rivulets wash the boundaries of the plain, and the bottom of the hills; the one on the east, and the other on the west, and terminate in arms of the sea, or salt water creeks, flowing

into the harbor. On the north and north-east, the connection of the plain country with the heights is uninterrupted by water, except that the morass, called the *Beaver Ponds*, breaks the continuity of the plain, about half a mile from the high ground on the north-west.

The plain country, of which I have now given a sketch, presents very little which is interesting to a *mineralogist*. It is not quite uniformly level, but slopes somewhat towards the harbor, and towards the rivers; and there are a few depressions which may be denominated vallies.—The inequalities of its surface are, however, no where so great, as to militate seriously against the idea, that it is principally an *alluvial* country. The conclusion is undoubtedly a correct one, that plain countries have generally been formed, or at least greatly extended, by the demolition of hills and mountains, caused by the long continued operation of frost and wind, rain, heat, and other similar causes, usually described under the comprehensive, although indefinite appellation of the *elements*. It is, however, only in Alpine countries, where the mountains rise to a stupendous height, and are exposed to the full fury of the storms, that one can expect to see the truth of this idea confirmed before his eyes, by the deep channels which a tempest of a few hours continuance will produce, and the great accumulation of stones, gravel and earth which are suddenly precipitated to the plains, and spread out over their surface. But, it is nevertheless true, that even in a country like that which we inhabit, the same causes are at work, and have been, since the creation. Their operation is less obvious, but not less certain, and there can be no doubt that the hills of New-Haven, as well as the Alps, the Appennines, the Pyrennees and the Andes, are wearing away by the friction of time. By the disintegration even of their firmest materials, they are suffering a real and increasing degradation, and in the same degree, do the plains and vallies below, acquire successive strata by the accumulation of their spoils. Indeed, we are not entirely without evidence on this point in the particular case now before us. After torrents of rain, we can, in many instances, perceive masses of gravel and earth, which

have been washed down from the hills, and it is not difficult to mark a gradation of stones of considerable size; of coarse gravel; fine gravel, and sand; and lastly, of parts so comminuted that they have become blended with the soil.

It may be thought that the east and west rivers would in a great measure prevent the alluvial increase of the plain of New-Haven, since, whatever is washed from the hills at whose feet those rivers run, must be arrested by them, and be either carried down by their currents, or deposited on their banks, or in their channels.

It is believed however that they have materially contributed to the extension of this plain, and its encroachment upon the harbor, both by the increase of their own banks, and the gradual change of their beds, and by accumulating such masses of matter, as, in the progress of time, have extended the land farther into the harbor, and elevated that into dry ground which was once beneath the water.

An effect of this kind has been manifestly produced, within the observation of people now living in this town, by the two small streams, one of which runs through the city, and the other passes between Meadow-Street, and Sodom Hill. It is well known that the harbor, contiguous to the mouths of those streams, has filled up with remarkable rapidity, and that salt grass is now beginning to grow, in many places, where a few years ago, vessels of 50 or 60 tons might float at high water. Thus, it would not be surprizing, if, in the progress of a century, the greater part of that portion of our harbor which now exposes a bed of mud at low water, should become dry ground.

When these things are duly considered, perhaps the conjecture will not appear extravagant that no small portion of our plain has been formed by *alluvion*, in the long progress of 6000 years, and that the very place which we now stand upon, was formerly overflowed by salt water. It would be easy to fortify this conclusion by many parallel facts, and to show that similar changes are going forward in most countries; but facts of this nature are sufficiently well known, and it remains only

to ascertain how far these speculations derive confirmation from the nature of the soil, and of the materials found beneath it.

The soil of this plain seems to have been originally, viz. before it was improved by European cultivation, little more than a stratum of reddish sand, mixed with a small quantity of vegetable mould, arising from the spontaneous decomposition of such vegetables as it was able to produce; and, even to this day, we find it marked by the same character, in those places, where it has not been improved by art. I need only refer, for the proof of this fact, to a space of considerable extent which lies at the foot of *Pine Rock*, and extends to the Beaver Ponds. We find the surface there composed principally of reddish siliceous sand, generally in masses of perceptible magnitude, but variously comminuted from the size of a pebble as large as a hen's egg, to that of a grain of sand. Now this stratum appears to be the fair effect of the alluvion of the neighboring hills, and there seems no ground for making any other distinction between it, and the rest of the surface of the plain, than what has arisen from manuring and cultivation. From these causes it has happened, that a rich vegetable mould is now found on a considerable part of our plain, and that no small degree of fertility has, in many places, succeeded to primeval barrenness.

If we penetrate into the ground, we find reason for extending these conclusions to the strata beneath the surface.

The digging of ditches, canals, cellars and wells, has afforded some opportunity to observe the structure of the more superficial strata. So far as the writer is informed, no quarries or masses of rock have been found, nor any other indications of a primitive country.

The mass of materials is all stratified, and the strata differ from each other only in the size of the individual masses which compose the different gravelly beds.

At the Beaver Ponds, where a canal has recently been dug to drain the morass, a stratum of fine sand has been thrown up, and mixed with it are masses of white quartz of four or five inches in diameter, which have evidently

been rounded and smoothed by the friction of other stones and water. The Beaver Ponds are *said* to contain peat.

On the whole, it seems probable that our plain has been greatly raised and extended, if it was not originally formed, by *alluvion*, and in the same proportion as it has acquired successive strata, the surrounding hills have been lowered to furnish the materials; in the same manner, it is probable that all eminences are undergoing a constant degradation, and the plains and vallies by the same means are rising continually, and extending their limits also, where circumstances will admit of such extension.

II. *Of the mountainous and hilly country.*

When we come to examine the heights which encircle the plain of New-Haven, we find a state of things very different from what has been described. Indications every where occur of a very ancient, if not of a primitive country, and in some parts at least, we must conclude that for many ages, if not from the creation, things have remained substantially as they now are.

On the East, at the edge of the plain, rises a perpendicular front of rock about 450 feet high, at the foot of which runs one of the rivers formerly alluded to in describing the plain.

The *East Rock*, as this eminence is called, presents to the eye a range of rude and irregular columns, whose surfaces have been evidently exposed to successive fractures, which have observed something like regularity, being generally found parallel to the *preceding* fractures. In this manner it happens, that prismatic figures of considerable regularity, may be observed on the front of the rock, and, on examining the stones which have fallen in the progress of time, or which have been broken off by the stone diggers, they are generally found to have something of a regular form, in some instances very striking and complete. The most common figures observed here are the triangular, the five and six sided prism, the parallelopipedon and the *rhomboidal* prism. A disposition to assume regular forms is one characteristic of

this species of rock, which there can be no hesitation in pronouncing to be what is called *whin stone* in Scotland, *trap* in Sweden, and *basalt* in some countries. The Giant's Causeway in Ireland, and the Cave of Fingal in the island of Staffa, on the western coast of Scotland, are famous, all the world over, for an exhibition of basaltic pillars of astonishing size, number and regularity.

The southern side of the mountain called Arthur's Seat, at Edinburgh, exhibits regular six-sided prisms, and our rocks here show a similar tendency so strongly, that one would, from this circumstance alone, be induced to suspect their identity.

But the matter is placed beyond all doubt by a minute ocular comparison of specimens from the two countries. The writer is in possession of specimens of the different basaltic rocks which are found in the vicinity of Edinburgh, and, on comparing a piece of our East Rock, with a piece of Salisbury Craig, a basaltic mountain near that city, one would be ready to say that they were broken from the same mass. Salisbury Craig is, in appearance, strikingly similar to the East Rock. It has the same rude perpendicular columns, the same curvilinear form, and nearly the same extent: It has a similar sloping mass of ruins accumulated at its foot; it fronts the same way; it slopes off with the same easy declivity in the rear: Like the East Rock, it reposes on a bed of red sand stone; and finally, on fracture, the stone presents the same appearance. So far as it has been examined, its chemical characters appear to be the same. It melts in the heat of a smith's forge, and, on cooling rapidly, presents the same vitreous slag, which the Scotch whin is known to produce. Hornblende and a white substance softer than quartz, probably feldspar, are the principal ingredients of both. The stone is reckoned among the argillaceous class, by some mineralogists, and by others, among the siliceous. The predominant ingredient is certainly silex, or the flinty earth, although when breathed upon, it emits the smell of *clay*, which would induce one to refer it to the argillaceous family.

Dr. Kennedy, of Edinburgh, analyzed several specimens of Scotch Whin. He found the Basalt of Staffa composed of

48 silex
16 argil or pure clay
16 oxid of iron
9 lime
5 moisture and other volatile matter
94

} in every 100 parts.

By subsequent experiments he ascertained that there existed also in this stone four parts of soda, and one of muriatic acid. The whin stone of *Salisbury Craig*, which is most similar to that of the East Rock, gave

46 silex
19 argil
17 oxid of iron
8 lime
4 moisture and other vol. matter
3,5 soda or about that quantity
7 muriatic acid
98,5

} in every 100 parts.

The same distinguished analyist (Dr. Kennedy) examined several other varieties of whin, and found them composed of nearly the same ingredients.

He analyzed also specimens of lava from Mount Etna, particularly that of Catania, and Sta. Venere Piedmonte, (vid. Edinb. Trans. Vol. v. part I. page 92) and found the most surprizing coincidence in the nature and proportion of their ingredients. It is not proper to demand so much of the time of the Academy as would be requisite in order to enter into the theories of the earth which at the present day profess to account for the origin of whin stone, as well as of the other masses of our globe: yet, it cannot be well omitted, that Europe is now divided between two systems of geology, at the head of *one* of which was the late Dr. Hutton, of Edinburgh; and of the other, the celebrated mineralogist *Werner*, of Fri-

bourg, in Germany. Thence the two systems are called the *Huttonian* and the *Wernerian*, or, because the former employs fire, and the latter water, as the great agent, they are frequently denominated the Plutonic and the Neptunian systems. According to Dr. Hutton, the whin stone is a product of subterranean heat. He supposes it to have been once in a semifluid state, and in that condition to have been forced from below upward among the superior strata by subterranean fire, where, by slow cooling, he imagines it assumed the stony character, and crystaline texture; for, it must not be forgotten, that when whin stone is melted by our common furnaces, and suffered to cool rapidly, it becomes mere glass, and, as the lavas are not viterous, but possess the stony and crystaline character, this was supposed by the opponents of the Huttonian theory, to prove that lava and whin stone could not have had the same igreous origin, since, if that were the case, the melted *whin* ought, on cooling, to assume the appearance of stone, and the crystalized form usually observed in the lavas, instead of the vitreous character which alone, after fusion, it had hitherto exhibited. But this objection has been removed by the experiments of Sir James Hall, of Edinburgh, who has found that when melted whin stone is cooled very slowly, and with a regulated temperature, it resumes completely the stony and crystaline character; moreover, that lava itself, if cooled rapidly, becomes a mere vitreous slag; if slowly, it exhibits again the proper appearance of lava, and that the same specimen of whin stone or of lava may, in this manner, be converted at pleasure into glass or stone, and this as often as the experimenter chooses; nay, that even common bottle glass may, by slow cooling, be converted into a perfect stone, and then by melting anew and rapid cooling, it may be restored to the state of glass again. It has happened to the writer to see most of the original specimens upon which these conclusions were founded.

In the opinion of the Huttonian geologists, they justify the conclusion that lava and whin are both of igneous origin; the former actually erupted into day light, and

cooling without any other pressure upon it, than that of the atmosphere; the latter actually melted in the bowels of the earth, and injected among the superior strata, by the force of subterraneous fire, but never erupted like lava, cooling under the pressure of the superincumbent strata; and therefore for which reason it assumes a more compact appearance, free from those cells so common in lavas.

To account for the appearance of the numerous masses of whin stone which we now see above the surface, they suppose that the materials which lay above, have been worn and washed away in the progress of time by the weather, and have left the harder and less destructible masses of whin stone exposed to view.

On the other hand, the Neptunian or Wernerian geologists suppose, that whin stone is a crystaline deposit from an actual state of solution in water.

These ideas, both of the Huttonians and Wernerians, are considered by their respective advocates, as equally applicable to granite, porphyry, and the other varieties of rocks, whose texture is crystaline. Perhaps it would be more correct to apologize for having digressed at all into theories of the earth, where we usually find so much that is visionary, hypothetical or false, than to persist farther in speculations which must at last end where they began, in doubt and painful uncertainty. It will therefore be more expedient to pass on to matters of fact, where we are in less danger of being misled by imagination.

South-east of the rock which we have been considering, are two eminences, lying in the same chain or ridge with the East Rock itself. The first of these is compact whin stone, and the faces of the stone are remarkably regular in their fracture, presenting frequently the rhomboidal prism. On the front of the other eminence, about two thirds of the way from its base to the top, and on that part which inclines towards the East Rock, we discover a bed of sand stone, having large and distinct masses of quartz imbedded in it. The strata are inclined a little to the east, and apparently sustain the bed of granitic whin, which forms the mass of the eminence itself. The materials which compose this eminence, are

considerably different from those of the adjacent mountain.

They present very distinct crystals of feldspar, and quartz in abundance, but the mica, the other ingredient of granite, is wanting, and we find little or no hornblende so common in the contiguous whin stone mountain. These are however some masses of compact, fine grained black basalt lying upon the hill; and upon the whole, we must pronounce it *granitic*, although it is not granite, and inclining to whin, although it is not whin stone. It must be regarded as one of those masses which form a connecting link between whin stone and granite, for it must be remembered that granite, whin stone and porphyry graduate insensibly into each other.

Leaving the East Mountain, and its dependencies, we come next to that chain of high ground, which passes immediately *west of*, and parallel *to*, the Hartford turnpike road, and terminates near the new burying ground. Here we shall not be detained long. The basis of the hill appears to be a very coarse grained and friable red sand stone. Upon its surface lie here and there, fragments of granite, in many of which the feldspar is undergoing decomposition, and becoming porcelain clay. It is, probably, from the decomposition of the feldspar of granite, that the porcelain clay is principally formed.

Most of that used in England is obtained from Cornwall, where extensive hills or ridges of granite are now undergoing decomposition. On the hill under consideration, is found abundance of quartz, white, brown, and red; and masses of flint are not unfrequently met with.

Proceeding in our survey, we arrive next at the Pine Rock, lying north-west of the Beaver Ponds, and east of the West Rock. Pine Rock is a mass of Whin Stone, scarcely distinguishable in fracture, grain and colour, from that of the East Mountain. It contains however, veins of *phrenite* in radiated crystals, and tremolite crystalized in diverging lines, grouped together like *radii* of a circle. It is somewhat gratifying to find these crystalized substances, so common in the whin of the *old* world, associated also with that of the

new, and thus confirming the correctness of our conclusions concerning its nature. Upon many of the masses of the *Pine Rock*, and particularly upon a large part of that projecting brow, which forms what is called the Judge's Cave, may be observed a white saline efflorescence which, from its taste, appears to be sulphat of iron, more commonly known by the name of green vitriol, or copperas.

Should this impression prove correct, it would not be difficult to account for the formation of the substance in question, since the sulphur which exists in these rocks in the form of pyrites, might be acidified by the oxigen of the atmosphere or of water, and the sulphuric acid thus produced, attacking the iron, either of the pyrites, or of the whin itself, would necessarily form copperas; the water would disolve and carry it over the surface of the stones, and evaporation would at last leave it in the dry powdery state in which we find it.

The mountain called the West Rock, which occurs next on our circuit, is a grand basaltic ridge, where the columns are more lofty, the prismatic form is more distinct, and the mass of ruins at the foot of the perpendicular cliffs is more considerable than at the East Rock.

There is however very little in its mineralogical history which has not been already anticipated. It is said to be incumbent upon a bed of sand stone; this however was not ascertained by actual examination.* That the *Pine Rock* has such a basis, is evident to the eye, for the strata are distinctly visible at one end of the eminence, where they have been laid bare by the rains. It will be well to remember that the whin rocks about Edinburgh have the same basis, and we have already found the same fact at the East Rock as well as here.

If there be any difference in the appearance of the whin of the West and of the East Rock, it may perhaps be said, that the former contains more hornblende, and is more inclined to break into the rhomboidal prism. The tendency of whin stone to assume these regular forms contributes very much to the utility of this stone, which thus presents fair faces for walls, and is easily made to tally with contiguous stones.

* *Note.*—I have since ascertained this to be the fact.

We cannot leave the whin stone mountains, without adverting to the enormous accumulation of the fragments of their columns, which is found at the foot of all of them, which the writer has seen, either here, or in Scotland. These fragments, which have every possible size, from a few grains weight, up to 100 tons, very naturally result from the innumerable seams which divide even the firmest whin stone rocks, into what may be considered as a collection of columns, standing side by side, and so contiguous, as, on the whole, to form one solid mass. Other fractures run at right angles to these, in such a manner as to cut off the perpendicular columns into blocks of various lengths. It happens therefore, that whenever the tops of these columns become exposed to the atmosphere, in consequence of the washing away of the less consolidated matters which cover them, they become peculiarly liable to break off by the action of the weather. This occurs particularly from frost. The water insinuates itself into the crevices, and when it freezes, it happens, in consequence of the well known expansion of water, during its congelation, that the columns become strained, and have a tendency to separate, whenever the cohesive force of the ice is diminished; therefore, especially in the spring, when the ice thaws, not only small masses, but even large columns, break off by their own weight, and fall to the bottom. At the *West Rock* particularly, one may see enormous masses which have fallen in this way; and such is the accumulation which time has produced there, that a sloping mass of ruins now extends more than half way up the mountain, affording strong confirmation of what was advanced in the early part of this essay, concerning the gradual demolition of hills and mountains by the action of the elements.

The subject of the whin stone mountains (already extended perhaps too far) shall now be dismissed, with the single remark, that the columns so often alluded to, are not always perpendicular; sometimes they are greatly inclined; a remarkable instance of which occurs at the junction of the Hartford and Cheshire turnpike roads, near Mr. Whitney's, where the columns do not form

an angle if more than 8° or 10° with the horizon, and rest upon a stratum of sand stone, having the same inclination in degree and in direction, which is south-west.

From the West Rock, we bend our course westward and southward, along the brow of the hills, which now assume only a very moderate elevation. Frequent masses of granite, whin stone, quartz and *sand stone* accompany us along through Westfield, till we arrive within a quarter of a mile of the Derby turnpike, when a new species of stone presents itself, and very soon becomes the predominate stone of the country. Its color is bluish, inclining to white, its fracture hackly, its hardness is such that it may be scratched even by the nail. Its structure is schistose, the laminæ are often variously contorted, and frequently striated, with laminæ of quartz, and sometimes of mica, so that in many places it may be called *micaceous schistus*, and from its soapy feel it may generally be denominated *magnesian schistus.*

There are considerable varieties in its appearance; sometimes it inclines towards argillaceous schistus, or slate, but is distinguished from it, by its soapy feel, and, other times it approaches the character of serpentine. Here and there in this quarter, may be seen detached masses of porphyry, which seems capable of receiving a handsome polish, but no bed of it was observed, although it is more than probable it exists in the adjacent hills in considerable quantity.

Nothing occurs to detain us in passing over the hills which lie between the Derby turnpike, and those heights which overlook West-Haven, about midway between the Stratford road, and the Sound. Insulated blocks of granite, whin stone, porphyry and quartz are scattered every where along, but the magnesian schistus is predominant, and from the heights just now mentioned, to where they terminate in the flat ground, adjacent to the shore, we find nothing but immense strata of this *magnesian schistus*, rising every where to view, and discovering, whenever the road, a water channel, or a side-hill gives a view of the strata, an unvarying inclination

to the west and north, forming an angle of perhaps 35° with the horizon.

In some instances this schistus is sprinkled with beautiful spangles of golden coloured mica, which are very brilliant in the sun.

We have now made the complete circuit of the hills of New-Haven, and the Academy are in possession of the result of an investigation, which, from its being probably the first of the kind attempted in this State, may perhaps have some right to claim, as it will undoubtedly need, an indulgent reception.

Nothing has been asserted which has not been ascertained by actual examination; and if there are errors, they are not the result of indolent and remiss inquiry, but of deficient information, or erroneous judgment.

If however, this imperfect investigation should prompt to similar exertions throughout our state, the effort will not have been lost, and may lead to such discoveries as will certainly be subservient to science, and may not improbably open new sources of domestic wealth, and materials for architectural and manufacturing industry.

B. SILLIMAN.

YALE COLLEGE, *Sept.* 1, 1806.

No. V.

NUMBER OF DEATHS,

In the Episcopal Church in New-York, in each month for ten years—from January 1, 1786, *to Dec.* 31, 1795.

TAKEN FROM THE SEXTON'S BOOKS, AND COMMUNICATED

BY N. WEBSTER, ESQ.

Ages.	Jan.	Feb.	March,	April,	May,	June,	July,	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	*Total.*
2 *years and under,*	66	43	48	58	51	70	173	360	261	139	78	93	—1440
Between 2 *and* 5,	12	12	14	7	5	11	8	21	18	25	25	14	— 172
5 *and* 10,	8	13	8	4	14	7	11	14	15	17	5	16	— 213
10 *and* 20,	7	5	6	5	13	4	7	8	25	12	7	8	— 107
20 *and* 30,	23	16	18	16	17	16	20	28	53	26	20	21	— 274
30 *and* 40,	14	24	12	16	25	18	29	28	36	36	24	24	— 286
40 *and* 50,	40	35	21	32	45	26	30	33	57	53	38	38	— 448
50 *and* 60,	11	23	17	16	25	23	18	28	22	23	20	11	— 237
60 *and* 70,	5	18	13	4	19	15	12	8	10	11	11	7	— 133
70 *and* 80,	6	8	7	4	10	4	7	6	7	6	9	9	— 83
80 *and* 90,	1	4	5	6	7	3	3	1	3	2	3	5	— 43
90 *and* 100,	0	1	1	1	3	1	2	0	1	4	0	2	— 16
100,	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	— 1
104,	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	— 1
													3373

It appears that in the four months of July, August, September and October, being one third of the year,

there died 933 children of two years old and under—almost two thirds of the whole number of deaths.

The influence of summer heat upon young children is apparent from the increased mortality in the month of July—an equal increase not taking place so early among the adults.

Of one hundred persons that die in New-York, according to this bill of mortality for ten years, there die of

Two years old and under, - - -	43	
Between 2 *and* 5, - - -	5	1-10
5 *and* 10, - - -	3	6-10
10 *and* 20, - - -	3	1-10
20 *and* 30, - - -	8	1-10
30 *and* 40, - - -	8	5-10
40 *and* 50, - - -	13	3-10
50 *and* 60, - - -	7	
60 *and* 70, - - -	3	9-10
70 *and* 80, - - -	2	5-10
80 *and* 90, - - -	1	3-10

One to 211 dies between 90 and 100.
One to 1686 dies above 100.

In this account, children who had completed two years of age are included in the first number, contrary, I believe, to usual practice. It is proper to remark the great proportion of deaths between the ages of 40 and 50. This proportion is far greater than it is in country towns.

This period of ten years, from 1786 to 1795, inclusive of both, was marked by several epidemic diseases, the measles and whooping cough and scarlatina Anginosa, which increased the mortality among children in 1789, 1792 and 1793—and the yellow fever increased the mortality among the adults in 1795. Taking the five healthy years of the period, viz. 1786, 1787 and 1788, 1790 and 1791, and the proportion of children of two years and under, is nearly 46 out of a hundred, not including premature births.

No. VI.

AN ACCOUNT

Of the American Cantharis, or Meloe Americæ;

COMMUNICATED BY DOCT. NATHANIEL DWIGHT,
NOW OF NEW-LONDON.

IN the Medical Repository, No. II. vol. II. page 174, is the following account. "Two or three years ago, William Smith, an intelligent person in my neighbourhood, informed me that one day as he was at work, he accidently mashed an insect on his shoulder, which, in a short time, produced a complete vesication; and it appearing to be the insect here described, I was determined to gather some of them, and give them a trial in my practice; which, however I neglected to do until last summer.

"This insect has a very near resemblance, in outward form, to the Meloe (vesicatorius) alatus, viridissimus nitens, antennis nigris, (Linn.) or Spanish flies, as they are commonly called; but is rather smaller than even those brought from Spain, and of a very different color; the head is of a very light red, with black antennæ; the elytra, or wing cases, are black, margined with pale yellow, and a stripe of the same color extends along the middle of each of them; the tarsi have five articulations;

the mouth is armed with jaws, and furnished with palpi," &c.

After reading the above account, together with the successful experiments made by Dr. Chapman, its author, I began, early in the summer of A. D. 1800, to search potatoe patches in Farmington, to see if I could discover the insect; but my endeavors were fruitless, till some time in August. I had, indeed, seen a few which were gathered in the city of Hartford, early in the month of July, which answered to Dr. Chapman's description, in every particular. Had this proved the case in my subsequent endeavors, I should have rested contented with his account; but since it was far otherwise, I have taken the liberty to communicate the result of my enquiries on the subject.

In the latter part of August, I was applied to by a man in Bristol to visit his daughter; and when riding to his house, he commenced a conversation about the Spanish flies, which induced me to suggest the sum of Dr. Chapman's account (above referred to) to him. He replied, "I believe I can show you enough of them on my potatoes; for they have been almost destroyed by a bug this year; and some of my neighbors' are much worse than mine." I was glad to embrace the opportunity; and after visiting the child, we took a walk together into his garden, where, to my great astonishment, and no little mortification, I saw the potatoes almost covered with an insect entirely black. On examination, however, I perceived that they answered perfectly to the above description by Dr. C. except in color. Looking a little farther, I found a few which came still nearer to his account; and still these varied very materially. They had their elytra margined with a narrow stripe of a light dirty brown. In every other respect they were like the others.

This suggested to me the probability that they were subject to change their color as the season advanced; but it is only a probability still, since I have not had any opportunity to determine it by fact. This probability is strengthened by analogy.

In pursuance of my investigation, I perceived that those with the margined elytra, and the black ones, copulated promiscuously, and that there appeared to be males and females of both kinds.

Some days after this, as Dr. Todd and myself were riding together, I mentioned to him what I had discovered, and, soon after, coming up to a potatoe patch, I discovered one of the black kind, and caught it. Dr. Todd rubbed it, for perhaps three seconds, upon his wrist, without mashing it, and called on me to notice the place. In riding one mile he complained of an itching, mingled with a burning sensation on the spot; which, on examination, was perceived to be a little red. In about one hour we caught some more, and found them of both the kinds above mentioned, but none which answered Dr. C.'s description. Dr. Todd then applied a second, of the black kind, in the same place, and in the same manner; when he mentioned to me, that the pain was excessively severe, and in a few minutes, on examination, we perceived a vesication had begun. I did not see Dr. Todd, until two or three days after this time; when he showed me his arm, and there had been a complete vesication, as large as the utmost bounds of the application of the insect, and larger than either of us had supposed he rubbed it on the skin.

Dr. Todd informed, that he was at Southington a day or two before, and on mentioning the above fact to Dr. Wadsworth, he, with his son and Dr. Todd, went into a plot of potatoes, and found the flies in plenty;—that Mr. Wadsworth applied one to his flesh, (I do not now remember where,) and that it became red in a few minutes. I have not learned the final result of it.

If they are other where no more plenty than where I first saw them, I presume that a child of ten years old, furnished with a convenient apparatus for confining them after they were taken, might gather a pound, at least, per day. Those that I saw, flew but little, nor did they make any other attempt to escape being taken, only to fall from one leaf to another; and, if pursued, they would contract their legs, antennæ, &c. and fall, apparently, lifeless to the ground. Some, I saw, running into little

perforations in the earth, of which there were many under those potatoe hills where the insects fed. But I could not satisfactorily determine whether the insects made them, or whether being otherwise made, the insects casually fled into them as a place of safety.

I had some gathered by the father of the child, of both kinds, separately; but as they did not readily die, by the method which I recommended, (viz. to put them into a covered glass, and that into a vessel containing boiling water,) he poured some water, as he said, almost scalding hot, into the glass. On mentioning the fact to me the next day, he observed, that there arose such a fume from the glass, as almost stopped his breath. I asked him if it was equally the case with both kinds? He replied, that he saw no difference. It remains yet to be proved, whether those killed in this manner, will produce the vesicative effect. This experiment I shall not fail to try, and will endeavor to communicate the result to the Academy.

As I think the experiments published in the account above refered to, by Doctor Chapman, abundantly prove the vesicative quality of this species of the cantharis, I should not have transmitted this statement to the Academy, had his description been perfect. But, as some of the distinguishing marks which he has there given, do not at all exist on by far the greatest part of those which I saw; and as none of them answered perfectly to his account, I have thought it proper to communicate these facts, with a view to obviating mistakes which might ensue, were people guided solely by his description in gathering them; and also to render their history as perfect as may be.

FARMINGTON, *Sept.* 9, 1800.

No. VII.

A CALCULATION

OF THE ORBIT OF THE COMET,

Which lately appeared; together with some general Observations on Comets.

BY COL. JARED MANSFIELD,
SURVEYOR-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES.

ABOUT the latter part of September, some persons living in the vicinity of this place, gave notice, that they had seen, for several successive evenings, an uncommon kind of Star, which, from their description, I concluded must be a Comet. On the first of October, through intervals of clouds, which were flying, I had a momentary view of the object, which, from its situation in the heavens and crinited appearance, obviously could not be one of the fixed stars, or planets. By the observations of a few evenings after the 1st of October, the general direction of its motion, as seen from the earth, was readily discovered, and it was evident that this comet, or wanderer, was retiring from its visit to the sun, or that it had passed the Perihelion, and ascending node of its orbit, and was receding from the regions of the planets. These circumstances were unfavorable to the views I had entertained of observing its motions, in such situations of its orbit, and during such long inter-

vals of time, as would be requisite for an exact determination of what astronomers call the *elements of its orbit*. Nevertheless, I endeavored, for this purpose, to improve such advantages and opportunities as were presented; and the common distance from some known fixed star was taken every night when the sky was clear, from the 1st of October, to the time of its becoming invisible. The only instrument which could be used for this purpose, was a well divided Sextant belonging to the United States. From the nature of the instrument, and the unfavorable state of the atmosphere during a considerable portion of the time, when the observations were made, I am far from thinking, that they will bear a comparison with such as may be made at European observatories. In my opinion, however, they will be sufficient for determining the orbit of this Comet, with as much or more accuracy, than some of those of the preceding centuries, on which Dr. Halley and other astronomers have grounded their calculations of a number of comets.

With a view of investigating the elements of the orbit of this comet, I selected three observations made at equal intervals of time, viz. those of October 3d and 19th, and of November 4th. Others might have been used for this purpose, but these superseded the necessity of interpolation, or of using the differential method of Newton. The geocentric longitudes and latitudes of the comet for those times, were calculated, and its velocity, and the apparent direction of its motion in respect to the earth, were thereby found. The direction of the plane of its orbit, and its distance from the sun, at one of those times, were found nearly, by a comparison of the absolute quantity and rate of its velocity in a parabolic orbit, with its apparent angular motion as seen from the earth, during the intervals of time between the observations. A calculation was then made, of different orbits varying in excess or defect of distance from that assumed, and an orbit was found by proportion, which gave the comet's place very nearly as observed.

These calculations being very tedious, and there being great danger of incurring mistakes, I have not been

able to pursue them, to the extent which might be desirable. Those who have more leisure, may at any time enter on a more minute and precise investigation. It is probable however, that the errors of the observations will exceed those of the calculation I have made, in their effects on some of the deductions. The following are the results of that calculation.

Place of the ascending node,	8*s* 27° 08′
Place of perihelion,	8 28 48
Inclination of its orbit to ecliptic,	0 63 09
Perihelion distance, that of the earth from the sun being 1,	.64480

Time of being in perihelion, Sept. 18th, 12h. 40m. P. M.
Time of its being in ascending node, Sept. 17th, 3h. P. M.
Motion of the comet, *direct.*

REMARKS. This comet approached the sun from the regions of the south, and first became visible to an inhabitant of the earth, about the 25th of July last. From that time, it might have been seen by those who live in places of considerable south latitude; but on account of the great inclination of its orbit to the ecliptic, and its little elongation in longitude, during all the time of its approaching to, and part of that of its receding from the sun, it could not be seen by the inhabitants of Europe, or of the United States, till towards the end of September. After this, its elongation, in north latitude, was increased, so as to give it an elevation above the horizon, which caused it to be visible after sun-setting. It disappeared to the naked eye, about the beginning of November, but was discernible with a telescope towards the end of that month.

From a comparison of the elements as above stated, with those of 78 comets observed by European astronomers, during the two or three last centuries, it does not appear, that this comet is one of that number. That of 1684, calculated by Dr. Halley, agrees nearest with this, in all the elements, except that of perihelion distance; but this alone, if the numbers, as deduced by that great astronomer, be correctly stated in the books to which I have had access, is a decisive evidence, that they are not

one and the same comet. For however appearances in other respects may be, the eccentricity, or that which is nearly commensurate with it, (perihelion distance,) is the most material element by which the identity of their *orbits* could be ascertained. Though this comet may have made one or more revolutions about the sun, since astronomers have begun to watch the motions and appearances of comets, there is reason to believe, that it has hitherto escaped their observations; for, in most situations of the earth in its orbit, the comet could not have much elevation above the horizon of places of any considerable latitude in the northern hemisphere, so as to be seen out of the effulgence of the sun's rays, till it had so far passed the perihelion, as to be scarcely distinguished from other celestial bodies, by its splendor, or crinited appearance.

Compared with some comets, whose tails have extended from 70 to 120 degrees over the horizon, that of this comet was by no means remarkable. The extent, at most, was not more than 8 or 10 degrees, when first observed, though the comet, at that time, had passed its perihelion, and its situation was such as to cause a great extension of its coma, or the atmosphere of its head. This coma appeared to be very thick about the nucleus, and its opacity much diminished the light of the star, which much resembled the dimness of Saturn. The apparent diameter of the comet's head was much greater than could be expected in one of so little splendor, and at so great a distance from the earth. Though I had no means of measuring it, I am confident, that it exceeded in this, many great comets, such as those of 1680, 1759, and 1769; for these, though remarkable for the length and splendor of their tails, were by no means so, on account of the size or magnitude of their heads. There were no other phenomena, peculiar to this comet, which came under my observation.

Since the discovery of those principles of motion, and gravitation, which regulate the heavenly bodies in their revolutions, the orbits of comets have been calculated with much precision, as it respects that part of them, which lies near the sun and earth. The principal *deside-*

ratum in cometography, and I may say in astronomy, is that of the periodical times of the comets. At first view, it may appear surprising, since the other elements are attainable to a great degree of accuracy, that this should yet be unknown. The same process, by which other elements of a *planet*'s orbit are determined, will also determine that of their periodical times; and why, it may be asked, does this not result from a similar process for investigating the orbit of a comet? In answer to this, I would observe, that the orbits of planets vary little from circles, and consequently their periodical times may be found nearly, by a comparison of their velocities with that of any body moving in a circle about the center of their orbits. The variation of their velocities, arising from the deviation of their orbits from circles, may also be determined; as that deviation, in its incipient state, or while the planet's orbit is an ellipsis, differing little from a circle, is very great, compared with its effect in respect to the periodical time, and is therefore susceptible of determination, either from observations of the planet's distance from the sun, or of its velocity. But the orbit of a comet, is a very eccentric ellipsis, whereof the deviation of curvature from that of a circle has arrived nearly to its limit; and the variation of curvature among ellipses of this sort, on which the proportion of their axes, or of their periodical times depends, is so minute, as scarcely to be perceptible near the extremity of their longer axes, or in the comet's orbits near the sun and earth, where only they become visible to an observer on the earth. For this reason, a parabolic orbit has been assumed by astronomers, as sufficiently accurate for the calculation of every phenomenon, incident to a comet's motion within the sphere of the planets. The periodical time in a parabola, or an ellipsis, the ratio of whose axes is *infinite*, if I may use the expression, is *infinite*; yet the curvature near the extremity of the axes of such a figure, differs little from that of an ellipsis, whose axes are in a ratio of no great finite magnitude. Thus, in an ellipsis, whereof the ratio of the axes is as 10 to 1, the difference of its parameter from that of a parabola, the distance from the vertex being the same,

is only as .0004, and a centripetal force commensurate with this, would change such an orbit from *finite* to *infinite*. Hence it is evident, that the periods of those comets, which run into very eccentric orbits, cannot be calculated, *a priori*, from any observations of their motions made from the earth. Those mathematicians, who have attempted to derive the elliptical orbits of comets in this way, have failed to produce results, in any degree corresponding with phenomena. The periodical times of the comets must, therefore, remain unknown, till a sufficient time has elapsed for finding them by observations of their returns. It will readily be conceived, that many ages must pass away, before such observations on all the comets can be obtained. But supposing this to have been accomplished, there would still remain an uncertainty in respect to their future periods. One, or more revolutions being completed in a certain time, will by no means justify the inference, that this will be the case in other revolutions; on the contrary, it would be consistent with physical principles, if the period of the same comet be at one time, twice or thrice, more or less, than at another, and even that it be infinitely greater, or never return. Modern astronomers have found, that agreeably to the principles of gravity, the planets, by their actions one on another, are considerably disturbed in their motions about the sun, and that the form and position of the orbits in which they move, are thereby not a little affected. The same causes operating to the increase or diminution of centripetal force, or of the velocity of bodies moving in very eccentric orbits, will, as it respects the figure and dimensions of their orbits, produce effects vastly great, compared with those of the planets on one another; and the periodical times will be in proportion to those effects. If for example, the ratio of the axes of an ellipsis be as 10 to 1, which by no means is equal in eccentricity to the orbits of some comets, and the velocity of the body moving in its circumference, be increased by one five hundredth part of that with which it moves, the body would no longer move in the ellipsis, but in a parabola, in which it could make no return; and if the ratio of the axes of the ellip-

sis be as 100 to 1, an addition of one fifty thousandth part of its velocity would produce the same effect.* It is evident, therefore, that the returns of comets to the sun, are not only liable to great variations in respect to time, in consequence of the actions of the planets, but that these actions may be so considerable, especially on comets of very eccentric orbits, as to cause them never to return.

Some astronomers have ventured to predict the returns of comets on the principle of their uniformity, as to the times of their revolutions, with as much certainty, and attention to minute accuracy, as are due to deductions founded on the strictest principles of the mathematics: But the only instance of such predictions being verified in any degree by events, is that of Dr. Halley, in respect to the comet of 75 years. This comet having appeared, several times, at nearly equal intervals, induced this astronomer to hazard a conjecture, that it would again return in the year 1758. The comet did indeed appear, at a time not differing more than 12 or 14 months from that predicted; but this variation of time, in respect to different revolutions of this comet, whose orbit has so little eccentricity, is a fact corroborating the statement I have made, of the effects which might be produced by the attractions of the planets on comets whose orbits are very eccentric, such as those of 1680, 1769, and many others, which have been observed during the two last centuries.

The identity of the comets of 1532, 1661, has been considered as certain; and its return in 1789 or 1790, at an interval of 129 years, was predicted to the minuteness of hours and minutes, by a celebrated astronomer, now living. The comet, however, did not at that time appear, nor has it been observed since. I am far from thinking that this, or any of the comets, have been known to make more than one revolution about the sun,

* See Prop. 16, and Corollaries, of Book I. of Newton's Principia, where it is demonstrated, that the velocities requisite for bodies moving in different conic sections, the focal distance of the vertex being the same, is in the sub-duplicate ratio of their principal parameters.

except that of 75 years, whose returns appear to have been observed by astronomers, several times in succession; yet admitting those of 1532 and 1661 to be one and the same comet, it is evident, that its periodical time must have varied from that of its preceding revolution; and if this be the case, it furnishes another fact illustrative of the theory which I have advanced.

Dr. Halley, in his cometography, prompted, undoubtedly, by that enthusiasm which he felt for scientific improvement, says, that "time will reveal to posterity all the mysteries of comets," or in words to this effect. But when the causes, which retard the progress of this branch of science, are duly considered, few will hesitate to adopt the contrary opinion, that ages will pass away before mankind can attain to much more knowledge of the comets, and that the periods of many will ever remain a problem, above human research and investigation.

Cincinnati, Jan. 24, 1808.

No. VIII.

OF THE FIGURE OF THE EARTH.

BY COL. JARED MANSFIELD,

SURVEYOR-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE celebrated question concerning the true figure of the earth, so much agitated by rival philosophers of the last century, is one of the many in astronomy and physics, the solution of which is almost wholly dependent on the mathematics. It is true indeed, that physical considerations of the nature of gravity, and the rotary motion of the earth, first suggested to Newton the idea that its figure must necessarily differ from that of a perfect sphere or globe. This sagacious philosopher and mathematician was likewise enabled, by the use of his own sublime geometry, to determine *a priori*, whatever is required in this problem, with a wonderful degree of precision. But the physical principles of Newton had not yet been verified by a sufficient number of experiments and observations; and the method of *Induction* on which they were founded, must ever be inferior in evidence, to the pure results of the mathematics.

In order, therefore, to a complete and satisfactory solution of this problem, as well as for an investigation of the principles and conclusions of Newton, it was necessary to have recourse to an actual mensuration of the earth, both in respect to magnitude and figure. The

first of these, viz. the magnitude of the earth, on the supposition of its entire sphericity, or globular figure, is easily determined. It is only requisite that the whole, or some given part of one of its great circles, be ascertained according to known measures. With this view, the arch of the meridian has been selected, as best adapted to celestial observations. This work, for nautical and astronomical purposes, has been performed long since by Picard, Norwood, and others. The more general question of the earth's figure, which necessarily involves that of its magnitude, is of a different nature; and though not difficult to those who are well versed in the higher geometry, is considerably remote from ordinary investigations. Its analysis affords an illustrious instance of the utility of those abstract mathematical speculations, which we have partly derived from the Greeks; but for which we are chiefly indebted to the moderns, viz. Des Cartes, Huygens, Clairaut, the Bernouillis, D'Alembert, Euler and Newton.

The question may be propounded in general terms, thus: *To determine in any curve, but more particularly in the conic sections, the dimensions of that curve; or the principal lines which regulate it, the diameter of the Osculatory circle, in two or more points of the curve being given.*

The Osculatory circle, or circle of curvature of any curve, is that which not only touches the curve in a point, but so nearly coincides with it, that no other circle can be drawn between them. The curvature of the curve, and circle, in that point, is therefore considered as the same. As this curvature, however, in all curves, the the circle only excepted, is perpetually varying; it can be considered the same no where but in the very point of Osculation, or very near it. The measure then of a small portion of the curve at or near this point, may be obtained from the corresponding portion of the circle, and *vice versa*, that of the circle from a portion of the curve.

The osculatory circle of any two points of the meridian of the earth, be the curve of any kind whatever, may [illegible]y the mensuration of a small portion of it, at [illegible]points corresponding to any small arc, or am-

plitude; or by the distance of lines perpendicular to the tangents in those points, whose intersection constitutes a small known angle, suppose of one degree. A degree of this circle being known, the circle itself is known; and if this be known in two or more points of the curve, the dimensions of the figure, viz. the ratios of the axes, ordinates, parameters, &c. may be found.

With a view to the foregoing process, mathematicans, in order to determine the figure of the earth, directed the measurement of a degree to be made in two or more distant parts of the meridian; where, supposing the figure elliptical, the curvature must necessarily have a perceptible difference. If these requisites could be obtained accurately, the conclusions respecting the form of the earth were considered as incontrovertible as any propositions of Euclid; and as ultimately decisive of the dispute which had been, for a long time, maintained on this subject. For Cassini and his followers had opposed the deductions of Newton, wholly on the ground that the measure of a degree of the meridian near the pole, would be found less than that of one near the equator; which opinion he was led into from a comparison of the lengths of the arches, which had been imperfectly measured by Snellius, Picard, Musschenbroek, and others.

The Newtonians, on the other hand, maintained that these measures were not sufficiently accurate, or properly adapted to the determination of this question; but if an exact mensuration could be made of the length of a degree of the meridian near the pole, and also at or near the equator, that all physical arguments, which in themselves are merely probable or hypothetical, must yield to the certain and demonstrable conclusions of the mathematics. For, if the measure of a degree at or near the pole, should be found less than one at or near the equator, the axis of the earth must necessarily be longer than a diameter of the equator; and on the contrary, if the length of a degree at or near the pole should be greater than one at or near the equator, the equatorial diameter of the earth must necessarily be more extended than its axis. These deductions, though not ob-

vious, are not less certain than any other mathematical truths, and were never, I believe, called in question till lately; when some philosophers apparently ignorant of the mathematics, from a very partial and superficial view of this subject, have attempted to derive conclusions directly contrary to the foregoing. They have undoubtedly fallen into this mistake from the analogy which subsists between the problem which relates to the figure of the earth, and that of its magnitude, on the supposition of a globular form. For as in two globes, that which has a degree of a great circle the largest, is of the greatest diameter or radius; so likewise they imagine, in a body bounded by any curvilinear superficies, that the degree of the curve is the largest, where the superficies is most remote from the center of the body. It is easy to demonstrate that nothing can be more erroneous than this assumption, and that in attributing false *conclusions* to mathematicians, they have overlooked the futility of their own *premises*, which, in fact, have no relation to the subject, nor any foundation on the principles of science.

They take for granted, that the measure of a degree, on the superficies of the earth, is the measure of the same portion of a circle, whose center coincides with the center of the earth, even while they suppose its form to be spheroidical. From which it would appear, that they had not extended their ideas of the nature, and properties of curve lines, beyond their first and most obvious principles.

In a circle, the measure of a degree of the circumference, is the same as that portion of it, which is intercepted by lines forming an angle of a degree at the center of the circle; and this is the very essential property of a circle, that its circumference be the equable measure of angles at its center. In the ellipsis, and other curves returning into themselves, the measure of a degree of their circumference, or of the osculatory circle, in no instance is the same, as that portion of it which is determined by the measure of a degree from the center of the figure. In proportion as the radius of curvature approaches to the position, and length of a line drawn from the center of the figure, to a point in the cir-

cumference, the curve approximates to a circle, and becomes one when those lines coincide.

The portions of the circumference of any figure, corresponding to measures of angles at its center, the circle only excepted, are, and ever must remain unknown till its nature and limitations are determined from other principles. *e. g.*

In the ellipsis* PEpe, the measure of a degree at P, is not the measure of a degree of a circle, whose center is at O, the center of the ellipsis; but it is the measure of a degree of the circle of curvature, whose center is some where beyond at C; and in like manner, the measure of a degree at E, is not the measure of a degree of a circle, whose center is at O, but the measure of a degree of the circle of curvature, whose center is somewhere at *d*, nearer the point E.

What the lengths of those portions of the periphery may be, which correspond to given angles at the center of the figure, is impossible to determine, in the case of the earth's mensuration, as we cannot go to its center, nor make observations on its surface, which supposing the earth's figure and magnitude unknown, can afford the necessary data for the determination of this point. It is evident, therefore, that it is not as in ordinary calculations, from the measures of angles at the center of the figure, that we can obtain a solution of the problem of the figure of the earth. If this could be obtained by no other methods, it is certain that it would for ever remain a secret. But by the aid of that sublime geometry, which in modern times has been so happily employed in abstruse and difficult inquiries of this nature, the problem will admit of a complete solution, from very simple *data*. Nothing more is requisite, than what was supposed above, viz. the measure of a degree at P and E, or at the polar and equatorial diamaters, if the figure be an ellipsis; for then the diamater of the circle of curvature will be exactly equal to the parameters of the diameters at those points, which being known, the ellipsis itself will be known.

The same *data* for any two other points of the meridian, is also sufficient, provided those two points be not

* See Fig. 5, plate 1.

taken too near each other. It will be necessary, however, to have recourse to an analytical process, when the measures of a degree are not at E and P, in order to investigate the relation of the principal lines involved in the general expression, given by mathematicians for the radius of carvature. For it is to be observed, that as in a given ellipsis, the radius of curvature, or the diameter of the osculatory circle, is determined from the principal lines, viz. diameters, ordinates, &c.; so also, when the radius of curvature is given, the principal lines, which regulate the figure, may be ascertained: this will be exemplified in the following

PROBLEM.

The measure of a degree, in two known latitudes of the meridian, being given, to determine from thence, the figure of the earth.

From physical and other principles, it is known that the earth, if not a sphere, must be a solid generated by the revolution of an ellipsis about one or other of its axes. Let therefore the ellipsis* PEPE, be a meridian of the earth, without knowing which axis is the longest. A one latitude and B another, where the measures of a degree are known, AD, BF, perpendiculars to the tangents, at the points A and B, and cutting the diameter EE, in D and F. GD, IF subnormals to the same.

A degree being known at the points A and B, the radius of curvature is likewise known, for each respectively, which let be represented by R, and r, and put the ratio of CP to CE, that of p *to* q. From the nature of the ellipsis, we have $AD = \frac{p}{q}\sqrt{q^2 - CG^2 + \frac{p^2}{q^2} CG^2}$; $AG^2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}\overline{q^2 - CG^2}$, and $GD^2 = \frac{p^4}{q^4} CG^2$; also $BF = \frac{p}{q}\sqrt{q^2 - CI^2 + \frac{p^2}{q^2} CI^2}$. $BI^2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}\overline{q^2 - CI^2}$, and $IF^2 = \frac{p^4}{q^4} CI^2$.

But the radius of curvature at A, according to the determination of mathematicians, is $R = \frac{q}{p}\overline{q^2 - CG^2 + \frac{p^2}{q^2} CG^2}^{\frac{3}{2}}$, and in like manner, at B, it is $r = \frac{q}{p}\overline{q^2 - CI^2 + \frac{p^2}{q^2} CI^2}^{\frac{3}{2}}$: If we put the sine of the angle ADG, or of the lati-

* See Fig. 4, plate 1.

tude at A=S, the sine of the angle BFI, or of the latitude at B=s, radius being supposed Unity, we shall have $s.\frac{p}{q}\sqrt{q^2-CG^2+\frac{p^2}{q^2}CG^2}=\sqrt{\frac{p^2}{q^2}\times\overline{q^2-CG^2}}$; and $s.\frac{p}{q}\sqrt{q^2-CI+\frac{p^2}{q^2}CI^2}=\sqrt{\frac{p^2}{q^2}\overline{q^2-CI^2}}$; whence $CG^2=\frac{q^2-s^2\,q^2}{1-s^2+\frac{s^2\,p^2}{q^2}}$, and $CI^2=\frac{q^2-s^2\,q^2}{1-s^2+\frac{s^2\,p^2}{q^2}}$; also the radius of curvature will become $R=\frac{q\,p^2}{\overline{1-s^2+\frac{s^2\,p^2}{q^2}}^{\frac{3}{2}}}$; and $r=\frac{q\,p^2}{\overline{1-s^2+\frac{s^2\,p^2}{q^2}}^{\frac{3}{2}}}$. From which we obtain this equation $R\times\overline{1-s^2+\frac{s^2\,p^2}{q^2}}^{\frac{3}{2}}=r\times\overline{1-s^2+\frac{s^2\,p^2}{q^2}}^{\frac{3}{2}}$; from which it is evident, that the radius of curvature, or the measure of a degree, which is always in a given ratio to it, is reciprocally proportional to the quantity $\overline{1-s^2+\frac{s^2\,p^2}{q^2}}^{\frac{3}{2}}$; now when $\frac{p^2}{q^2}$ is less than Unity, or the equatorial exceeds the polar diameter, the terms $-s^2+\frac{s^2\,p^2}{q^2}$, are negative, and the whole expression diminishes in value, as s, or the sine of the latitude increases; that is, when the equatorial exceeds the polar diameter, a degree of the meridian increases, in a ratio depending on the sine of the latitude, as determined in the foregoing expression, and *vice versa*.

When $p=q$, or the equatorial and polar diameters are equal, then $R=r$, or the radius of curvature, or the degree of the meridian, is every where the same.

As to the actual proportion of these diameters, according to the measures of a degree, in any two latitudes,

it must be determined from the resolution of the value of p, and q, in the equation $R \times \overline{1-s^2+\frac{s^2p^2}{q^2}}\Big|^{\frac{3}{2}} = r \times \overline{1-s^2+\frac{s^2p^2}{q^2}}\Big|^{\frac{3}{2}}$, which I leave to the analyst. My object has been principally to show, by a mathematical process, similar to what mathematicians have instituted for the solution of this problem, the necessary connection, and dependence, between the measures of degrees, in different latitudes of the earth, and the proportion of its axis, and equatorial diameter. Many other inferences might be deduced from the foregoing algebraic equation, involving these relations; but I have already done enough, to prove, that mathematicians have been correct in their ideas respecting the species of figure which must result from the inequality of the degrees of the meridian, near the equator and pole; and that those philosophers, who have embraced contrary notions, have been led into them, from specious resemblances, in the properties of mathematical figures, and a want of that comprehension of the more profound principles, which is essential in the investigation of truth, in difficult and abstruse inquiries of geometry.

No. IX.

OBSERVATIONS

On the Duplication of the Cube, and the Trisection of an Angle.

BY COL. JARED MANSFIELD,

SURVEYOR-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES.

IN the memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, Vol. II. are two papers (No. 1 and 2) by James Winthrop, Esq. which from the importance of their subjects, cannot fail to excite the attention of the mathematical reader. In the first of those papers, the author proposes to solve the ancient and difficult problem of the *duplication of the cube*, or of finding, geometrically, two mean proportionals between any two extremes of a geometric series. This problem, in arithmetic, amounts only to the extraction of the cube root, and may very easily be solved by numbers, or logarithms. A solution, however, by the strict principles of geometry, is not so easily effected, and by no means do I apprehend that any propositions of Euclid, or of a right line and circle, are sufficient for this purpose. Newton and others, who have used a circle, have either produced a mechanical solution of this problem, or have introduced principles of the higher geometry. Mr. Winthrop appears to be the only person who has ever attempt-

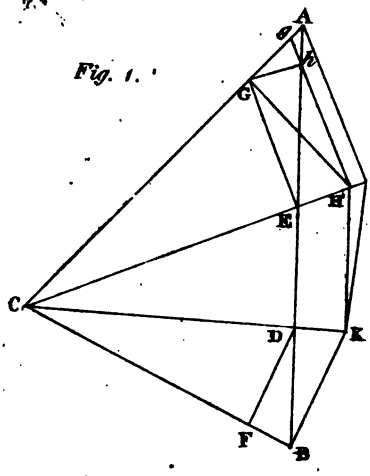
ed its solution by right lines, or merely by the principles of common geometry. His construction is as follows.

* "Let ACE, ECD, and DCB be equal angles of any magnitude, and let AC and BC be the extremes given. Draw AB a right line crossing EC and DC in the points E and D; then will AEC=EDC+DCE, and for the same reason CBD=CDE—DCE. Wherefore make BDF=DCE and AEG=DCE, and we shall have three similar triangles FCD, DCE and ECG, and their sides are necessarily proportional; and the lines CF, CD, CE and CG form a series of four continued proportionals; for CD is the hypothenuse of the first triangle, and the base of the second; and is therefore a mean between CF and CE. In like manner CE is a mean between CD and CG. But the extremes CF and CG are shorter than CB and CA. Having therefore by this process ascertained the method of finding easily four continued proportionals by beginning with the mean terms; if we invert the process, and begin with the extremes, and make the angles EAI and DBK each equal to DCE, we shall have BK parallel to FD, and AI parallel to EG, *and therefore KI parallel to DE.* Therefore, the triangles CBK, CKI, and CIA are similar to CDE; and by reason of position, CK and CI are the mean proportionals sought." Thus far it appeared necessary to transcribe Mr. Winthrop's solution of this problem. The demonstration appears faultless until we come to the words, *and therefore KI parallel to DE.* From what premises this inference is drawn, is not easily conceived. It certainly cannot be justified by any principles antecedently expressed; for the parallelism of BK to FD, and of AI to EG contains no relation, whereby the parallelism of KI to DE may be inferred, and unless some other principles were taken into consideration, it is evident, that the author has fallen into a paralogism.

But that KI is not parallel to DE, except when the antecedents and consequents of the proportionals, or the two extremes are equal, may be easily proved; for which purpose make the angle EGH=FDB, and from H draw HK, then will HK be parallel to ED, and the

* See Fig. 1, plate 1.

Fig. 1.



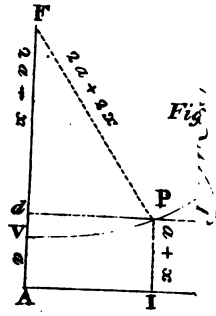


Fig.

Fig. 3.

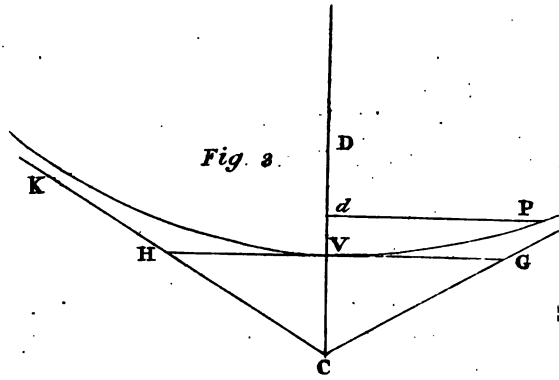
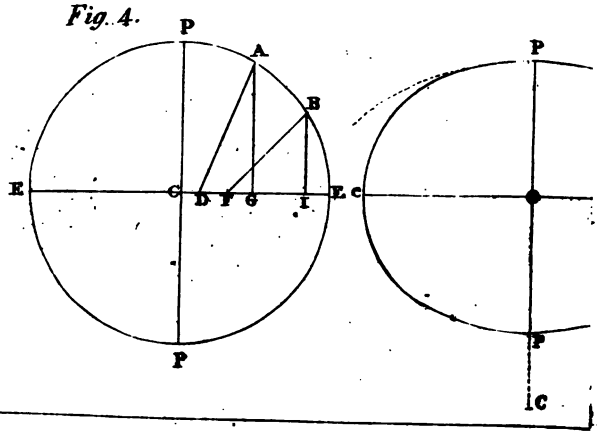


Fig. 4.



point H will not coincide with I; for CF : CE : : CD : CG by similar triangles, also CD : CG : : CB : CH, and by division CF : CE : : FB : EH ; but CF : FB : : CD : DK by construction ; and consequently CD : DK : : CE : EH ; whence by (Euc. 2. 6.) KH is parallel to DE. Draw Gh, making the angle EGh equal to the angle GEH, then will the triangle EGh, be similar and equal to the triangle GEH, and the line Hhg passing through the point h, will be parallel to EG ; (Euc. 39. 1.) whence the series of parallels to FD, DE, EG, commencing at B, will terminate at the point g. Now if, according to the conditions of the problem, the terms of the proportionals be in a ratio, *minoris aut majoris inequalitatis*, or any otherwise to each other, than in a ratio of equality, the point g will not coincide with A, the extremity of the given line CA. For when CG is greater than CE, then the angle CEG is greater than the angle CGE, and GEH (EGh) the supplement of CEG is less than AGE the supplement of CGE, by the angle AGh ; also Eh is less than EA by the line Ah subtending the angle AGh : but Eh : EA : : Gg : GA : : EH : EI, and therefore Gg is less than GA, and EH is less than EI. In the same manner, it may be proved that when CG is less than CE, Gg and EH are respectively greater than GA and EI ; as therefore in no condition of the problem, does the point H coincide with the point I (for we consider its conditions to vanish, when the extreme proportionals are equal) and as KH has been proved to be parallel to ED, it is manifest that IK cannot be parallel to ED, and that the four proportionals made by similar triangles commencing with CB, are BC, CK, CH, and Cg. This last term not being equal to CA the given extreme, it is evident that this process by similar triangles fails to produce a just solution of the problem.

The same conclusions might have been deduced from other principles, which in their application, would have illustrated something of that relation and harmony between algebraic and geometrical quantities, which constitute one of the most beautiful theories of the mathematics, and from which the laws of geometrical constructions are derived ; but this would lead to an exten-

sive field of speculative science, not much frequented even by mathematicians. I would only observe, that geometricians have, long since, demonstrated, generally, the impossibility of solving geometrical problems of the second degree, or order, by any lines of the first order, since these cannot be so combined, as to involve the more complicated conditions and relations, necessarily implied in such problems.

The other problem, which is the subject of Mr. Winthrop's second paper, is that of the trisection of an angle, to which though equally capable of a solution by right lines, as that of the duplication of the cube, a dissimilar one has been given from the consideration of lines of a superior order, in a manner consonant to the strict principles of geometrical constructions, and which appears to be not less novel than ingenious. The author, however, has omitted to investigate the nature and specific properties of the curve, called by him, the *trisecting curve;* but it is easily shown, that it is no other than the common hyperbola: For, using his scheme, suppose VC,* the curve, AB the directrix, V the vertex, P any point in the curve; from P, draw Pd perpendicular to FV; and VA, PI perpendicular to the directrix AB; draw the line FP from the focus F to the point P; put $VA=a$, $Vd=x$, then $PI=a+x$, $FP=2a+2x$, and $Fd=2a-x$; let $Pd=y$. Now in the right-angled triangle PdF, $Pd^2(y^2)=FP^2-Fd^2(2a+2x^2-2a-x^2)=12ax+3x^2$; or $y=\sqrt{12ax+3x^2}$. This equation is that of the common hyperbola, whose axes have a given ratio commensurable in power, and therefore is very easily constructed in the following manner.

From a given point C, in a right line CD, draw two right lines CK, CL, indefinitely on each side, making with CD an angle of 60°, or with one another, an angle of 120°: Set off from C, the distance $CV=2a$; then between the two assymptotes CK, CL, and through the vertex V, construct an hyperbola, and this will be the curve required, or what is called by Mr. Winthrop, the trisecting curve.

* See Fig. 2, Plate 1.

For from V, erect the perpendiculars VG, VH; then the angles HCV, VCG, being each equal to 60°; HC, or CG, will be equal to 2 CV=4 a, and $HV^2=16a^2-4a^2=12a^2$; but by conics, $CV^2(4a^2):HV^2(12a^2)::\overline{2CV+Vd}\times Vd\,(\overline{4a+x}\times x):dP^2$; putting therefore dP, the ordinate of the curve, as usual, equal to y, we shall have $y^2=12ax+3x^2$ for the equation showing the relation of the ordinates and abscissas of this curve, which is the same as that above determined for the *trisecting curve;* consequently, this is an hyperbola, whose assymptotes are inclined in an angle of 120 degrees, and whose axes are 4 a, $4a\sqrt{3}$, respectively.

October 2, 1809.

No. X.

A STATEMENT

Of the Quantity of Rain which falls, on different Days of the Moon.

BY JEREMIAH DAY,
PROFESSOR OF MATHEMATICS AND NATURAL PHILOSOPHY IN YALE-COLLEGE.

THE influence of the Moon upon the various bodies on the earth, is a subject of general observation. The swelling of the ocean has long been ascribed to this cause. There is also a very prevalent, though vague apprehension, that there is a connection between the vicissitudes of the moon, and the growth of vegetables, the progress of diseases, the changes of the atmosphere, and other important phenomena. It is desirable that so current an opinion should be brought to the test of accurate observation. Should it prove to be well founded, it might aid us in predicting some of those changes in the atmosphere, and in the bodies around us, with which our daily concerns are intimately connected. To do justice to this subject, in all its extent, would require very numerous and diversified courses of experiments. For the purpose of ascertaining a single point, a calculation has been made on a series of observations, during the years 1804, 5, 6 and 7, on the quantity of rain which fell in New-Haven, in different periods of the moon.

The rain has been caught in a cylindrical vessel, ten inches in diameter, and about twenty inches deep. It is placed ten or twelve feet from the surface of the ground. The water, directly after it has fallen, is poured out, and measured in a tube one inch in diameter. In this way, as the area of the large cylinder is an hundred times as great as that of the small one, the depth of the water may be determined, to the thousandth part of an inch.

The snow is first melted, and then measured in the

same manner as the rain. This method is tolerably accurate, except in some few cases of violent *wind.* In these instances, the best expedient seems to be, to form an estimate of the average depth of snow on the ground.

The quantity of water collected, whether from rain or snow, is entered in a column against the day of the month: and in an adjoining column, is noted the age of the moon. The following table gives a view of the whole quantities collected, on different days of the moon, during forty-eight lunations; a period a little short of four years.

	1804	1805	1806	1807	4 years.
	inches	*in.*	*in.*	*in.*	*in.*
7th day before the new Moon	.94	1.92	.22	4.94	8.02
6th	.61	3.88	1.80	1.11	7.40
5th	.42	2.70	.85	1.17	5.14
4th	1.	1.23	.15	1.25	3.63
3d	1.30	.61	.94	0	2.85
2d	.70	.48	.11	.36	1.65
1st	.12	.25	.70	1.67	2.74
NEW MOON.	0	2.10	1.27	1.46	4.83
1st after the new Moon	0	1.53	.89	.75	3.17
2d	1.38	1.10	1.08	.44	4.00
3d	.46	.25	2.11	.65	3.47
4th	.05	1.52	.72	1.17	3.46
5th	.86	.82	.78	.22	2.68
6th	4.36	1.20	.68	2.24	8.48
7th	1.63	1.73	1.39	4.06	8.81
7th before the full	5.48	2.14	.72	1.08	9.42
6th	0	3.14	.13	1.02	4.29
5th	0	1.89	2.49	.54	4.92
4th	1.05	2.59	2.36	1.72	7.72
3d	2.44	.55	.60	.43	4.02
2d	3.45	.96	1.24	1.09	6.74
1st	1.63	.97	2.01	2.50	7.11
FULL MOON.	3.38	.67	2.47	0	6.52
1st after the full	.66	.55	1.17	3.11	5.49
2d	3.16	1.14	2.44	.59	7.33
3d	1.10	1.58	1.86	3.02	7.56
4th	.33	.91	1.74	2.06	5.04
5th	1.15	1.58	2.07	.88	5.68
6th	3.39	.94	2.51	1.61	8.45
7th	0	.35	0	1.37	1.72

From this table it appears, that, if a comparison be made between the quantity of water collected at the New Moon, the Full, and the Quarters, the least portion has fallen at the New Moon; and the greatest at the Quarters. The exact proportion will vary a little, according as the comparison is made between one, two, three, or more days, at each of these periods. If, in each lunation, only one day be taken at the New Moon, one at the Full, and one at the Quarters, the numbers will be 4.83, 6.52, 7.02. But if the average of several days be taken, they will stand as in the following table.

	One day.	*Average of 2 days.*	*Average of 3 days.*	*Average of 4 days.*
New Moon	4.83	3.89	3.58	3.39
Full	6.52	6.41	6.37	6.54
Quarters	7.02	7.03	7.02	7.06

To derive any established principle from results of this kind, it is necessary that the observations should be continued for a great length of time. Till there is opportunity for this to be done, the above may possibly serve as hints towards a more thorough investigation of the subject. With this view they are submitted.

No. XI.

DESCRIPTION OF AN AIR-PUMP.

Invented by ELIZUR WRIGHT, *Esq. Feb.* 1803.

P IS the pump plate. *IV* the pump barrel, which lies in a horizontal position, underneath the pump plate, and nearly in contact with it. *A*, and *B*, two ducts leading from the pump plate into the barrel. *WM*, a solid piston, without a valve, moving air tight in the leathern collar *O*. *T*, a stirrup, designed to keep the piston rod steady. *NH*, is a short piston, made like the former, and acted upon by the spring *D*, which is firmly fixed to the piston rod, and by the springs *E*, *F*, through which the rod passes, and is made to slide backward and forward. *G*, a slide, which serves the triple purpose of straining the springs *D*, *E*, *F*, by the screw *L*, that they may act in the first instance with a considerable force on the short piston *NH;* secondly, of keeping the piston rod steady; and thirdly, of preventing the piston from moving too far in the barrel, by means of its being met by the bolthead *H*, at the end of the rod. *C*, the arch which turns on a pin in the bar *RS*, lying underneath the barrel, and works the pump by means of a chain.

The manner in which the pump is worked is this. Suppose the short piston to be in the situation *N*, so as to cut off a communication between the barrel and external air, and the piston *WM*, in contact with it. It now moves back towards *T*, till it has passed the duct

A, when it is stopped by the shoulder *X*. In its progress, a vacuum is formed in the barrel, until it arrives at *A*, and opens a communication between the barrel and receiver, when the air, by its elastic force, rushes into the barrel and fills it. All the back space between the collar *O* and the piston *M*, both in its advance and recess, is to be considered as making a part of the capacity of the receiver. But to speak more accurately, it is only the space *OA* which is a *real addition* to the capacity of the receiver; the space *AM*, between the duct and the piston, whilst it moves forward towards *B*, being only a temporary dilatation of the capacity and the small vacuity between the collar and the piston, after it has passed the duct *A* in moving backward, being a temporary contraction of it: In both cases it is restored to its original extent, on the return of the piston. Having attained to its limit in moving back, the piston now proceeds forward, and after it has passed by the duct *A*, intercepts the communication between the receiver and barrel, and drives before it the air contained in the barrel, together with the short piston *N*, until it is stopped by the shoulder *K*, at the end of the bar *RS*, at the instant that it arrives against the middle of the duct *B*, at which the air is all forced out. The two pistons now form one air-tight stopper, that completely closes the orifice *B*, and prevents any communication of the receiver and barrel with the external air. Now the piston *WM*, is drawn back towards *T*, and the short piston *NH*, by the force of the springs *D*, *E*, *F*, follows in close contact with it, and thus continues to interpose a barrier between the barrel and external air, until it is stopped by the meeting of the bolthead *H* with the slide *G*, after having passed the duct *B*, and having arrived at the situation *N*, where the description began.

When the pump is intended to exhaust, the receiver must be placed over the duct *A*, leaving the duct *B* open to the external air; but when it is designed to condense, nothing more is necessary than to shift the situation of the receiver on the plate, placing it over the duct *B*, and leaving the duct *A* open to the external air.

No. XII.

A BRIEF ACCOUNT

Of a Trial at Law, in which the influence of Water, raised by a Mill-Dam, on the health of the inhabitants in the neighborhood, was considered.

BY THE HON. DAVID DAGGETT, ESQ.

BEFORE the Superior Court, held at Litchfield, on the fourth Tuesday of January, 1800, was tried an action of trespass, instituted by Joseph Ruggles, of New-Milford, against Elijah Boardman, and others, inhabitants of New-Milford.

The claim on the part of the plaintiff was, that the defendants, in January, 1799, destroyed a part of his mill-dam, erected across the Housatonic river, and nearly opposite the most compact part of the town. The defendants acknowledged that they had injured the dam in manner as alledged, and justified, on the ground, that the dam was a public nuisance, in that it was the cause of a distressing sickness, which had for several years visited New-Milford. It was agreed, that a dam had stood at or near the place of the present dam, for about sixty years past; and that the dam complained of, had been by the plaintiff, in July and August, 1796, raised about ten inches. It was also agreed, that a bilious remitting fever, and the fever and ague, had raged with great virulence, in the vicinity of this dam, in the years 1796--7--

8 and 9. The great question therefore, in the case, was, whether the raising of the dam in 1796 was the *sine qua non* of the disease? A variety of testimony was produced by the parties, tending to convince the court and jury of the truth of the affirmative and negative of this question. It was proved, that in each of the years above mentioned, an unusual sickness had prevailed;—that the whole number afflicted with the bilious fever was about 300;—that this fever commonly began in July, and ceased in October;—that the fever and ague had also been prevalent in the period aforesaid, but was not confined to place or season. It was also proved, that there were upwards of fifty acres of low marshy ground, on the west side of the river, opposite the town;—that there was, in July and August, much stagnant water in and about those marshes; and it was contended, (though the fact was doubtful,) that the waters in and about those sunken places, were materially affected by the raising of the dam. To prove that this state of the water, &c. might, and probably would produce the fever, the opinion of physicians, and the existence of similar facts in other places, were resorted to.

It was generally agreed by the medical gentlemen, that the bilious remitting fever, and fever and ague, of our country, are produced by marsh effluvia;—that this effluvia is caused by animal and vegetable putrefaction;—that the action of the sun on vegetables or animals, upon the receding of waters from them, frequently causes this putrefaction; and that the months of July and August, are seasons peculiarly favorable for the production of this effluvia, and its operation upon the human constitution. It was also agreed, that water, though stagnant, does not become dangerous, till it is so fetid as to offend the senses; and that while vegetables and animals are covered with running water, they are innoxious. Of the physicians who had viewed this dam, and the mill-pond made thereby, with the circumstances and situation of the town, some were of the opinion that it was the cause of the sickness, while others doubted or disbelieved it. It was proved, that the raising of the waters by mill-dams, in Salisbury, Colebrook, Roxbury, and in various places in the states of Massachusetts, Vermont, New-

York, and Pennsylvania, had been followed with fevers of the same type with that at New-Milford. It was testified by a respectable physician, that he had visited a family in Kent, living on one of the highest hills, and that several persons in the house were severely afflicted with a bilious fever;—that on examination, he discovered a small pond, nearly dry, in which there was a great quantity of dead fish, producing a very loathsome stench;—that the pond was speedily covered with fresh earth, and health was restored.

It was contended by the plaintiff, that raising the dam would not be injurious, unless thereby more ground was overflowed from which effluvia would arise; and this was denied, since the water was now kept within the well defined banks of the river;—that the situation of the town was favorable to disease, being circumscribed by high hills, and consequently subjected to a bad state of air; and that there were causes sufficient, without resorting to the dam to account for the fever. It was proved, that in the year 1796, as early as the 20th of July, there were many cases of the bilious fever, strongly marked; and that, at that time, the dam was not raised or altered from its usual height;—that the same fever had existed in many preceding years, from 1782;—that in 1799, after the destruction of the dam complained of, and while it stood with the water at its ancient level, the same fever raged, though with less malignancy, and in situations more remote from the mill-pond. These were urged as sufficient to encounter the presumption arising from the facts previously stated.

It was also proved, that in 1757, a malignant fever, (as it was then denominated,) raged, to the destruction of about forty inhabitants;—that in 1777, the dysentery prevailed, said to have been brought from the army, and that the fever and ague had always been a disease of New-Milford;—that the towns through which the Housatonic river runs, have been frequently visited with bilious fevers, and that too where no mill-dams could be resorted to as the causes.

The physicians concurred in opinion, that persons are seldom attacked with this fever more than once during an epidemic, but that the fever and ague frequently visits

the patient in the spring or summer following. They also agreed, unanimously, that from 1793 or 4, fevers have been more frequent and malignant than in any preceding years, excepting that in the last season there appeared an abatement in the number of cases and violence of the disease.

It was proved, that the same disease with the one under consideration, had prevailed in many places, in this and the states of New-York and Massachusetts, within the last five years, where no mill-dams or ponds could have operated—on the most elevated hills, and in situations heretofore deemed the most healthy;—that in Great-Barrington, and West-Stockbridge, the disease appeared remote from the ponds, while the people in the vicinity of them enjoyed usual health. A respectable physician, from Sheffield, gave an account of a very distressing fever, which had prevailed there since 1795.—That a mill-dam was erected in 1787, to which it was by many ascribed; yet he declared, that from 1787 to 1795, great health prevailed, though the dam, during that period, was as high as it had been since. He also said, that during the spring of 1799, the dam was lowered, and that the disease, the summer following, was much more mild.

It was admitted, that the exposing of vegetables or animals, or other substances capable of being reduced to sudden putrefaction, to the sun, by drawing off water, draining ponds, or clearing up low grounds, tended to produce disease: but certainty, or even connection, as to particular instances in which this consequence had followed, seemed scarcely attainable.

It was obvious to all the hearers of this trial, that the more proof, the more doubt, and that the question grew perplexed by investigation. And so fully were the court and jury impressed with this idea, that they decided in favor of the owner of the dam, and gave damages accordingly; saying that they could not find it proved a nuisance.

New-Haven, March 12, 1800.

No. XIII.

ON THE DECOMPOSITION OF WHITE LEAD PAINT.

To Mr. BENJAMIN SILLIMAN, *Secretary of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences.*

SIR,

IT is well known, that a white paint, formed by mixing oil, and usually vegetable oil, with the white oxyd of lead, is very expensive, and not very durable. Within a few years after this paint is laid upon a building, it is observed that the oil has been separated from the lead, and the latter may be rubbed off with the hand, being reduced to a state in which it is easily pulverized. It is observable also, that the like paint on inside work, not exposed to water, is not liable to the same change. From these facts, it is probable that the oil, when exposed to water, undergoes a slow decomposition.

Oil is proved, by chemical analysis, to be composed of carbon, or pure charcoal, and hydrogene, or the base of inflammable air, in the proportion of nearly four parts of the former, with one of the latter. Now carbon has a very strong affinity for oxygene, one of the constituent elements of water. Is it not probable that the decomposition of the oil of paints is owing to that affinity—the

carbon of the oil combining with the oxygene of water, and the hydrogene of the oil, being set free, escaping in the form of gas? If so, the art of rendering the paint durable will consist in fixing the oil, or preventing this decomposition. This is undoubtedly a great desideratum in the arts. In the course of my scanty reading on subjects of this kind, I have found nothing satisfactory. The experiments of M. de Morveau, as related in a paper communicated to the Academy of Dijon, of which an extract is found in the Encyclopedia, were evidently made before the date of the new Chemistry. It is believed that the causes of the changes which paints undergo, and which he ascribes to phlogistic vapors, are now better understood than when he wrote; and it is desirable that the attention of the chemist, as well as the artist, may be invited to the subject.

If the funds of the Academy would permit, it might be well to offer a premium for the discovery of a substance which should fix the oil in white paints, without changing their color.

I am, Sir, respectfully, your obedient servant,

N. WEBSTER, JUN.

New-Haven, Oct. 30, 1804.

No. XIV.

AN OBSERVATION

Of the Auroral Appearance in the Evening of the first day of August 1783, *at Durham.*

BY THE LATE REV. ELIZUR GOODRICH, D.D.

I FIRST observed this appearance at viii. 56. at which time a zone of auroral light extended almost from the western to the eastern horizon. I was observing the heavens not ten minutes before, and then saw nothing of it. I am informed it arose suddenly from the north-western part of the heavens, and with a swift motion coruscated to the eastern. When I first observed it, it pointed to the western part of the horizon, at about N. W. by W. and to the eastern at a little south of east, though it was not clearly to be discerned on either horizon. In the western quarter, there was a beautiful profusion of clear and bright light, almost sufficient to conceal the stars under those of the second magnitude; this rose almost to the meridian, where the light grew fainter, and went on decreasing toward the east. In the western part, the light was so great and strong, and so entirely covering the heavens, that particular streaks or coruscations could be distinguished only in the outer borders of

the zone: In the eastern, they might be discerned distinctly through the whole breadth. The zone did not appear in the arch of either a great or parallel circle in the heavens, but irregular between both, its height being out of the proportion of either, and its casps toward the horizon on both sides, especially the western, declines much more northerly than regularity would admit; besides several breaks seemed to appear in the zone at times, which nevertheless were immediately filled up. The breadth of the zone was various in different parts of it, and in its successive motion southward, which at first was more rapid, till it become stationary, and then moved northward, till the whole appearance evanished.

The following observations were made during the appearance.

viii. 56.—Zone of auroral light extended almost across the heavens; rising from about N. W. by W. and descending about E. by S.—The southernmost or last bright star in the tail of *ursa major*, in the northern limb of the zone, where its breadth was equal to a third part of the distance between that star and the bright star of the crown.—Lyra, in the middle of the zone, where the breadth of the zone was equal to the third part of the distance between Lyra and Aquila.—The whole zone north of the stars in *Draco*, vulgarly called the diamond.—Brightest light in the western part; more faint in the eastern.

ix. 6.—Zone of auroral light partly evanishing in the east.—The whole zone south of Lyra—western part very bright—its southern limb touches the northern stars of the crown—its breadth nearly as above.

ix. 10.—Bright star of the crown in the middle of the zone, where the appearance is very bright and luminous, but decreaseth toward the meridian; eastward of which the whole appearance is evanished.

ix. 15.—The appearance stationary in the crown—bright westward of it, and extending about half way to the horizon—breadth not so great as at first—from Lyra half way of the crown almost wholly evanished.

ix. 16.—Western bright appearance continues stationary.—A new coruscation or stream of faint auroral

light, of an equal breadth of about one degree, passing through the middle of the crown, a little north of Arcturus, and its northern limb just touching the *diamond* in *Draco*, extended to the eastern horizon, descending considerably south of east.

ix. 25.—Appearance, for some time stationary, is now moved about one degree north of the diamond, and its southern border near the northernmost stars in the crown.

ix. 28.—Bright appearance in the west evanishing.—Small coruscation evanishing in the middle; continued in the east and west.

ix. 30.—Whole appearance continues to evanish in the west.

ix. 33.—Bright light near gone.—The smaller coruscation distinctly renewed instantaneously, and nearly in a great circle from the eastern to the western horizon, passing north of the northernmost stars of the crown—north of Arcturus—south of Lyra—north of Draco.

ix. 34.—Evanishing at the eastern horizon.

ix. 35.—Evanished to *Draco*.

ix. 36.— - - - Lyra.

ix. 37.— - - - - the Crown.

ix. 38.—Wholly evanished.

ix. 40.—Small coruscations in the east.

ix. 45.—Faint coruscations in the west, through the tail of the Great Bear up to the Galaxy.

ix. 57.—Auroral light very faint.

x.—No auroral light to be discerned.

A faint bank of auroral light in the north during the whole, which sometimes ascended to about 30 degrees.

No. XV.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE METEOR,

Which burst over Weston in Connecticut, in December 1807, and of the falling of Stones on that occasion.

By PROFESSORS SILLIMAN AND KINGSLEY.

WITH A CHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF THE STONES,

By PROFESSOR SILLIMAN.*

ON the 14th of December, 1807, about half past 6 o'clock, A. M. a meteor was seen moving through the atmosphere, with very great velocity, and was heard to explode over the town of Weston, in Connecticut,

* NOTE....The following account of the facts which attended the falling of stones from the atmosphere, was first published, *in substance*, in the Connecticut Herald, and, subsequently, in many newspapers, and in several literary and philosophical Journals. A revised account, together with the details of the analysis, was afterwards communicated to the Philosophical Society of Philadelphia, and has been published in their transactions. No communication was made to the Connecticut Academy, because they did not then contemplate publishing any thing *immediately*, and the public curiosity was so much alive on a subject which, in this country, was altogether novel, that there was no room for delay.

But, in consequence of the strong local interest which is felt in Connecticut, as the scene of the extraordinary event alluded to, the Academy have thought proper to direct the republication of these papers, that they may be preserved and diffused in Connecticut; disclaiming at the same time any right to them as original communications.

about 25 miles west of New-Haven. Nathan Wheeler, Esq. of Weston, one of the justices of the court of common pleas for the county of Fairfield, a gentleman of great respectability, and of undoubted veracity, who seems to have been entirely uninfluenced by fear or imagination, was passing at the time through an enclosure adjoining his house, and had an opportunity of witnessing the whole phenomenon. From him the account of the appearance, progress, and explosion of the meteor, is principally derived. The morning was somewhat cloudy. The clouds were dispersed in unequal masses, being in some places thick and opaque, and in others fleecy and partially transparent. Numerous spots of unclouded sky were visible, and along the northern part of the horizon a space of ten or fifteen degrees was perfectly clear. The attention of Judge Wheeler was first drawn by a sudden flash of light, which illuminated every object. Looking up he discovered in the north a globe of fire, just then passing behind the cloud, which obscured, though it did not entirely hide the meteor. In this situation its appearance was distinct, and well defined, like that of the sun seen through a mist. It rose from the north, and proceeded in a direction nearly perpendicular to the horizon, but inclining, by a very small angle, to the west, and deviating a little from the plane of a great circle, but in pretty large curves, sometimes on one side of the plane, and sometimes on the other, but never making an angle with it of more than 4 or 5 degrees. Its apparent diameter was about one half or two thirds the apparent diameter of the full moon. Its progress was not so rapid as that of common meteors and shooting stars. When it passed behind the thinner clouds, it appeared brighter than before; and, when it passed the spots of clear sky, it flashed with a vivid light, yet not so intense as the lightning in a thunder-storm, but rather like what is commonly called *heat lightning*.

Where it was not too much obscured by thick clouds, a waving conical train of paler light was seen to attend it, in length about 10 or 12 diameters of the body. In the clear sky a brisk scintillation was observed about

the body of the meteor, like that of a burning firebrand carried against the wind.

It disappeared about 15 degrees short of the zenith, and about the same number of degrees west of the meridian. It did not not vanish instantaneously, but grew, pretty rapidly, fainter and fainter, as a red hot cannon ball would do, if cooling in the dark, only with much more rapidity.

There was no peculiar smell in the atmosphere, nor were any luminous masses seen to separate from the body. The whole period between its first appearance and total extinction, was estimated at about 30 seconds.

About 30 or 40 seconds after this, three loud and distinct reports, like those of a four-pounder, near at hand, were heard. They succeeded each other with as much rapidity as was consistent with distinctness, and, altogether, did not occupy three seconds. Then followed a rapid succession of reports less loud, and running into each other, so as to produce a continued rumbling, like that of a cannon ball rolling over a floor, sometimes louder, and at other times fainter: some compared it to the noise of a waggon, running rapidly down a long and stony hill; or, to a volley of musketry, protracted into what is called, in military language, a *running fire*.---- This noise continued about as long as the body was in rising, and died away apparently in the direction from which the meteor came.

The accounts of others corresponded substantially with this. Time was differently estimated by different people. Some augmented the number of loud reports, and terror and imagination seem, in various instances, to have magnified every circumstance of the phenomenon.

The only thing which seemed of any importance beyond this statement, was derived from Mr. Elihu Staples, who said, that when the meteor disappeared, there were apparently three successive efforts or leaps of the fireball, which grew more dim at every throe, and disappeared with the last.

The meteor was seen as far south as New-York; and the explosion was heard, and a tremulous motion of the earth perceived, between forty and fifty miles north of

Weston. From the various accounts which we have received of the appearance of this body at different places, we are inclined to believe, that the time between the disappearance and report, as estimated by Judge Wheeler, is too little, and that a minute is the least time which could have intervened. Taking this, therefore, for the time, and the apparent diameter of the body as only half that of the full moon, its real diameter could not be much less than 300 feet.*

We now proceed to detail the consequences which followed the explosion and apparent extinction of this luminary.

We allude to the fall of a number of masses of stone in several places, principally within the town of Weston. The places which had been well ascertained at the period of our investigation, were six. The most remote were about 9 or 10 miles distant from each other, in a line differing little from the course of the meteor. It is therefore probable that the successive masses fell in this order, the most northerly first, and the most southerly last. We think we are able to point out three principal places where stones have fallen, corresponding with the three loud cannon-like reports, and with the three leaps of the meteor, observed by Mr. Staples. There were some circumstances common to all the cases. There was in every instance, immediately after the explosions had ceased, a loud whizzing or roaring noise in the air,

* Note....From subsequent information it appears, that this meteor was seen in the eastern part of Connecticut, in New-Jersey, in the interior of the state of New-York, and as high up, at least, as Rutland, in Vermont.

It was stated by Professor Day, in a discourse before the Connecticut Academy, that a gentleman who was riding in Colchester in Connecticut, which is about 50 miles east of Weston, saw this meteor distinctly; it was passing within 15 or 20 degrees of the moon, and appeared to him to be about one half as large as that luminary. It was justly remarked by Mr. Day that, if at this distance, it had this apparent diameter, its real diameter must have been 12 or 1300 feet, or, about a quarter of a mile; but, as the apparent diameter was not taken with an instrument, but by estimation, it was not supposed that this conclusion was perfectly exact. It is evident, at least, that the meteor must have been much higher, when it exploded, than was at first supposed.

observed at all the places, and so far as was ascertained, at the moment of the fall. It excited in some the idea of a tornado; in others, of a large cannon shot in rapid motion, and it filled all with astonishment and apprehension of some impending catastrophe. In every instance, immediately after this, was heard a sudden and abrupt noise, like that of a ponderous body striking the ground in its fall. Excepting one, the stones were more or less broken. The most important circumstances of the particular cases were as follows:

I. The most northerly fall was within the limits of Huntington, on the border of Weston, about 40 or 50 rods east of the great road from Bridgeport to Newtown, in a cross road, and contiguous to the house of Mr. Merwin Burr. Mr. Burr was standing in the road, in front of his house, when the stone fell. The noise produced by its collision with a rock of granite, was very loud. Mr. Burr was within 50 feet, and immediately searched for the body, but, it being still dark, he did not find it till half an hour after. By the fall, some of it was reduced to powder, and the rest of it was broken into very small fragments, which were thrown around to the distance of 20 or 30 feet. The rock was stained at the place of contact with a deep lead colour. The largest fragment which remained did not exceed the size of a goose egg, and this Mr. Burr found to be still warm to his hand. There was reason to conclude from all the circumstances, that this stone must have weighed about twenty or twenty-five pounds.

Mr. Burr had a strong impression that another stone fell in an adjoining field, and it was confidently believed that a large mass had fallen into a neighboring swamp, but neither of these had been found. It is probable that the stone, whose fall has now been described, together with any other masses, which may have fallen at the same time, was thrown from the meteor at the first explosion.

II. The masses, projected at the second explosion, seem to have fallen principally at and in the vicinity of Mr. William Prince's in Weston, distant about five miles, in a southerly direction, from Mr. Burr's. Mr.

Prince and family were still in bed, when *they heard a noise like the fall of a very heavy body, immediately after the explosions.* They formed various unsatisfactory conjectures concerning the cause—nor did even a fresh hole made through the turf in the door-yard, about 25 feet from the house, lead to any conception of the real cause.

They had indeed formed a vague conjecture that the hole might have been made by lightning, but would probably have paid no further attention to the circumstance, had they not heard, in the course of the day, that stones had fallen that morning in other parts of the town. This induced them, towards evening, to search the hole in the yard, where they found a stone buried in the loose earth which had fallen in upon it. It was two feet from the surface—the hole was about twelve inches in diameter, and as the earth was soft and nearly free from stones, the mass had sustained little injury, only a few small fragments having been detached by the shock. The weight of this stone was about thirty-five pounds. From the descriptions, which we have heard, it must have been a noble specimen, and men of science will not cease to deplore that so rare a treasure should have been immediately broken in pieces. All that remained unbroken of this mass, was a piece of twelve pounds weight, since purchased by Isaac Bronson, Esq. of Greenfield, with the liberal view of presenting it to some public institution.

Six days after, another mass was discovered, half a mile north-west from Mr. Prince's. The search was induced by the confident persuasion of the neighbours that they heard it fall near the spot, where it was actually found buried in the earth, weighing from seven to ten pounds. It was found by Gideon Hall and Isaac Fairchild. It was in small fragments, having fallen on a globular detached mass of gneiss rock, which it split in two, and by which it was itself shivered to pieces.

The same men informed us, that they suspected another stone had fallen in the vicinity, as the report had been distinctly heard, and could be referred to a particular region somewhat to the east. Returning to the place after an excursion of a few hours to another part of the town, we were gratified to find the conjecture verified,

by the actual discovery of a mass of thirteen pounds weight, which had fallen half a mile to the north-east of Mr. Prince's. Having fallen in a ploughed field, without coming into contact with a rock, it was broken only into two principal pieces, one of which, possessing all the characters of the stone in a remarkable degree, we purchased; for it had now become an article of sale.

Two miles south-east from Mr. Prince's, at the foot of Tashowa Hill, a fifth mass fell. Its fall was distinctly heard by Mr. Ephraim Porter and his family, who live within forty rods of the place, and in full view. They saw a smoke rise from the spot, as they did also from the hill, where they are positive that another stone struck, as they heard it distinctly. At the time of the fall, having never heard of any such thing, they supposed that lightning had struck the ground, but, after three or four days, hearing of the stones which had been found in their vicinity, they were induced to search, and the result was the discovery of a mass of stone in the road, at the place where they supposed the lightning had struck. It penetrated the ground to the depth of two feet in the deepest place; the hole was about twenty inches in diameter, and its margin was coloured blue from the powder of the stone, struck off in its fall.

It was broken into fragments of moderate size, and from the best calculations might have weighed 20 or 25 pounds.

The hole exhibited marks of much violence, the turf being very much torn, and thrown about to some distance.

We searched several hours for the stone, which was heard to fall on the hill, but without success. Since that time, however, it has been discovered. It is unbroken, and exactly corresponds in appearance with the other specimens. It weighs 36½ pounds.* It is probable that the five stones last described were all projected at the second explosion.

* It has been purchased by Mr. Gibbs, of Newport, Rhode-Island, who has thus enriched his splendid collection of minerals with the finest meteoric stone which is probably extant. This specimen abounds so much with iron, that it might almost be denominated an iron ore; some of the pieces of iron visible on the surface, are more than an inch long.

III. At the third explosion a mass of stone far exceeding the united weight of all we have hitherto described, fell in a field belonging to Mr. Elijah Seeley, and within thirty rods of his house. Mr. Seeley's is at the distance of about four miles from Mr. Prince's. Mr. Elihu Staples lives on the hill, at the bottom of which this body fell, and carefully observed the whole phenomenon.

After the last explosion, he says, a rending noise like that of a whirlwind passed along to the east of his house and immediately over his orchard, which is on the declivity of the hill. At the same instant a streak of light passed over the orchard in a large curve, and seemed to pierce the ground. A shock was felt, and a report heard like that of a heavy body falling to the earth; but no conception being entertained of the real cause, (for no one in this vicinity, with whom we conversed, appeared to have ever heard of the fall of stones from the skies) it was supposed that lightning had struck the ground. Three or four hours after the event, Mr. Seely went into his field to look after his cattle. He found that some of them had leaped into the adjoining enclosure, and all exhibited strong indications of terror. Passing on, he was struck with surprize at seeing a spot of ground which he knew to have been recently turfed over, all torn up, and the earth looking fresh, as if from recent violence. Coming to the place, he found a great mass of fragments of a strange looking stone, and immediately called for his wife, who was second on the ground.

Here were exhibited the most striking proofs of violent collision. A ridge of micaceous schistus lying nearly even with the ground, and somewhat inclining like the hill to the south-east, was shivered to pieces, to a certain extent, by the impulse of the stone, which thus received a still more oblique direction, and forced itself into the earth to the depth of three feet, tearing a hole of five feet in length and four and a half feet in breadth, and throwing large masses of turf and fragments of stone and earth to the distance of 50 and 100 feet. Had there been no meteor, no explosions, and no witnesses of the light and shock, it would have been impossible for any person contemplating the scene to doubt, that a large

and heavy body had really fallen from the skies with tremendous momentum.

From the best information which we could obtain of the quantity of fragments of this last stone, compared with its specific gravity, we concluded that its weight could not have fallen much short of 200 pounds. All the stones, when first found, were friable, being easily broken between the fingers; this was especially the case, where they had been buried in the moist earth; but by exposure to the air, they gradually hardened.

This stone was all in fragments, none of which exceeded the size of a man's fist, and was rapidly dispersed by numerous visitors, who carried it away at pleasure. Indeed we found it difficult to obtain a sufficient supply of specimens of the various stones, an object, which was at length accomplished, principally by importunity and purchase.

The specimens obtained from the different places are perfectly similar. The most superficial observer would instantly pronounce them portions of a common mass. Few of the specimens weigh one pound, most of them less than half a pound, and from that to the fraction of an ounce.

The piece lately found on Tashowa Hill is the largest with which we are acquainted. Mr. Bronson's is the next in size. The largest specimen in our possession weighs six pounds, and is very perfect in its characteristic marks. Of smaller pieces we have a good collection. They possess every variety of form, which might be supposed to arise from fracture with violent force. On many of them, and chiefly on the large specimens, may be distinctly perceived portions of the external part of the meteor. It is every where covered with a thin black crust, destitute of splendor, and bounded by portions of the large irregular curve, which seems to have inclosed the meteoric mass. This curve is far from being uniform. It is sometimes depressed with concavities, such as might be produced by pressing a soft and yielding substance. The surface of the crust feels harsh, like the prepared fish skin, or shagreen. It gives sparks with the steel. There are certain portions of the stone covered with the black crust, which appear not to have formed a part of the out-

side of the meteor, but to have received this coating in the interior parts, in consequence of fissures or cracks, produced probably by the intense heat, to which the body seems to have been subjected. These portions are very uneven, being full of little protuberances. The specific gravity of the stone is 3.6, water being 1. The specific gravity of different pieces varies a little; this is the mean of three.

The colour of the mass of the stone is mainly a dark ash, or, more properly, a leaden colour. It is interspersed with distinct masses, from the size of a pin's head to the diameter of one or two inches, which are almost white, resembling, in many instances, the crystals of feldt-spar in some varieties of granite. The texture of the stone is granular and coarse, resembling some pieces of grit stone. It cannot be broken by the fingers, but gives a rough and irregular fracture with the hammer, to which it readily yields. On inspecting the mass, five distinct kinds of matter may be perceived by the eye.

1. The stone is thickly interspersed with black or grey globular masses, most of them spherical, but some are oblong. Some of them are of the size of a pigeon shot, and even of a pea, but generally they are much smaller. They can be detached by any pointed iron instrument, and leave a concavity in the stone. They are not attractable by the magnet, and can be broken by the hammer. If any of them appear to be affected by the magnet, it will be found to be owing to the adherence of a portion of metallic iron.

2. Masses of yellow pyrites may be observed. Some of them are of a brilliant golden colour, and are readily distinguishable by the eye. Some are reddish and some whitish. The pyrites appear most abundant in the light colored spots, where they exhibit very numerous and brilliant points, which are very conspicuous through a lens.

3. The whole stone is interspersed with malleable iron, alloyed with nickel. These masses of malleable iron are very various in size, from mere points to the diameter of half an inch. They may be made very conspicuous by drawing a file across the stone.

4. The lead-coloured mass has been described already.

and constitutes by far the greater part of the stone. After being wet and exposed to the air, the stone becomes covered with numerous reddish spots, which do not appear in a fresh fracture, and arise manifestly from the rusting of the iron.

5. There are a few instances of matter dispersed irregularly through the stone, which are considered as intermediate between pyrites and malleable iron. They are sometimes in masses apparently crystalline, but usually irregular. They are black, and commonly destitute of splendor, but exposed by a recent fracture, they appear like a glossy superficial coating. They are sometimes attractable by the magnet, and sometimes not.

CHEMICAL EXAMINATION of the Stones which fell at Weston, (Connecticut,) Dec. 14, 1807. *By* B. SILLIMAN, *Professor of Chemistry in Yale College.*

THE public are already in possession of ample details concerning the fall of these bodies, and the phenomena which preceded the event.—I have made an attempt to ascertain their nature, by a series of experiments, the result of which is now communicated to the public. It will be necessary to make some observations, and to detail some experiments, upon each of the constituent parts of the stone.

I. Of the stone at large.
II. Of the pyrites.
III. Of the malleable iron.
IV. Of the black irregular masses.
V. Of the crust.
VI. Of the globular bodies.

I. *Of the stone at large.*

1.—100 grains of the stone, taken without any particular reference to the various bodies, and, containing promiscuously, portions of all of them, were pulverized in a porphyry mortar. The malleable iron resisted the pestle, so that the mass could be reduced only to a coarse powder. It was then digested for 11 hours, with a mo-

derate lamp heat, in strong nitric acid, in a capsule of porcelain. Nitrous gas was disengaged with the usual red fumes, and, a light whitish matter appeared, dispersed through the solution, resembling gelatinous silex.

2.—The clear fluid was decanted from the insoluble residuum, all of which, except a small portion of the white floculent matter, had subsided; to separate this, the fluid was filtered, and exhibited a decidedly greenish color.

3.—The solid residuum was heated over an Argand's lamp, till it was quite dry, and then triturated for an hour, in mortars of porphyry and jasper. As the malleable iron had now been removed by the acid, the residuum was easily reduced to a fine powder, which had a brick red color, and was digested again, for an hour, with a mixture of nitric and muriatic acids, somewhat diluted, and then boiled for some time in the same fluid. This was decanted and filtered, and the residuum was washed with water till it came off tasteless; these washings were all filtered and added to the two solutions Nos. 2 and 3. The entire fluid had now a light yellow color, owing to the nitro muriatic acid present in excess.

4.—The solid residuum, together with the solid matter arrested by the filters, being ignited in a platinum crucible, became nearly white, and weighed 51,5 grains. It was fused with potash in a silver crucible, and the crucible, with its contents, was immersed in water contained in a silver bason; the resulting fluid was decomposed by muriatic acid and evaporation, and, the precipitate, after ignition in a platinum crucible, was white. There could now be no hesitation in pronouncing it to be silex, and the conclusion seemed sufficiently established, that more than half the stone consisted of this earth.*

5.—The entire solution was next examined, to discover what was the soluble part of the stone.

After the superfluous acid was saturated by ammonia, a very voluminous red precipitate appeared, which was

* Were it not for the infant state of chemistry in this country, it would be unnecessary to remark, that all the most important tests and re-agents employed in these experiments, were *absolutely pure*; for, very few of them can be obtained *pure* from the shops; the silver vessels were also perfectly pure, as were those of platinum.

oxid of iron. The fluid was filtered, and heated on a sand bath, to expel the excess of ammonia, and to precipitate any additional portion of oxid of iron which it might have suspended, but none was obtained.

6.—The precipitate being washed, collected, dried and ignited strongly, in a platinum crucible, had a dark brown colour, inclining to red, and weighed 38 grains. Six grains of this weight were allowed for what adhered to the filter, which was accurately weighed before it was used, and after it had been thoroughly dried on a heated slab of Portland stone, and the difference of weight was 6 grains.

The oxid of iron thus obtained was not in the highest state of oxidizement; for, it was *completely*, although not very *powerfully* attractable by the magnet, by which the whole of it was actually transferred from a plate of glass to a wine-glass. It ought to have been oxidized to a maximum, considering the process by which it was obtained;—possibly some adhering ammonia, and a portion of charcoal, which accidentally got into the crucible, might have abstracted a part of its oxigen, with the aid of heat, and indeed heat alone would have expelled a portion of oxigen.

7.—The fluid from which the oxid of iron had been separated, had now a greenish colour, precisely similar to what it had in No. 2. Carbonat of potash produced no precipitate, but, caustic potash threw down a pretty voluminous fleecy white precipitate. Being separated by the filter, dried, collected, and moderately heated, it became almost black; but, on being heated strongly in a platinum crucible, covered by an inverted crucible of the same metal, it became white. It weighed 13 grains. It dissolved rapidly in sulphuric acid, and afforded, by evaporation, prismatic crystals, which had an acidulous, bitter taste; the former arising from a redundancy of the sulphuric acid;—it afforded a white precipitate, with caustic potash—suffered the aqueous fusion, and became a dry mass, on a live coal. From all these considerations, it was concluded, that the 13 grains were magnesia.

These crystals of sulphat of magnesia had a very slight

tinge of green, a circumstance which was, doubtless, connected with the dark appearance of the magnesia, when first heated. It shall be resumed presently.—It should be observed, that in some of the experiments with sulphuric acid on this supposed magnesia, a white matter, in small quantity, remained undissolved at the bottom of the vessel.—It could hardly be silex, and preliminary experiments led me to conclude that no lime was present.—Was it accidental, or, was there a small portion of alumine? This white matter, when heated with sulphuric acid and sulphat of potash, did not afford crystals of alum, on evaporation. I have not yet had leisure fully to decide this point, but intend to resume it. The stone has a very slight argillaceous smell, when breathed upon.

8.—The remaining solution still retained its greenish colour. Previous trials had decided, that neither copper nor iron was present in the solution. Nickel was therefore sought for, and the observations of Howard and Vauquelin, in their analyses of the stone of Benares, led me to expect it in triple combination with the ammoniacal nitrat and muriat, which had been formed in the liquor by a previous step of the process. According to the experience of Howard, I found the hidro sulphuret, and the prussiat of ammonia, the only agents among those which I tried, that would precipitate the nickel. The prussiat of ammonia gave a white precipitate, inclining to purple; the hidro sulphuret of ammonia, a voluminous black precipitate. The hidro sulphuret was used, and the precipitate was separated by the filter; the filter was dried, and it was with great difficulty that about three fourths of a grain were collected; the portion adhering to the filter was estimated at a grain; that which had been collected was ignited in a platinum crucible, and became green; it was, without doubt, the oxid of nickel, and with every allowance for loss and other circumstances, the whole cannot be estimated at more than 1,5 grain. In this estimate is included a portion of nickel which adhered to the magnesia, when it was precipitated; which caused it to turn black, when first heated—which gave the sulphat of magnesia formed from it a

slightly greenish tinge; and whose existence is still farther proved, by the black colour which was produced, when a solution of this salt was mixed with the hidro sulphuret of ammonia.

9.—The fluid from which the nickel had been precipitated, was now of a yellow colour, unmixed with green. Its present colour was derived from the hidro sulphuret of ammonia, and nothing could now be detected in the solution, except what had proceeded from the various re-agents employed.

There was, however, one other constituent of the stone, of whose existence the eye furnished decisive evidence, of which no account has hitherto been given, namely, the sulphur. As to the quantity of this, I can give only an estimation. Of the grounds of that estimation, as well as of the fruitless attempts which were made to collect the sulphur, I will speak presently; but for the sake of concluding this head, I will now add, that the sulphur was estimated at 1,. If this analysis be correct then, the 100 grains which were examined afforded,

Silex, - - - -	51,5
Oxid of iron, - -	38,
Magnesia, - - - -	16,
Oxid of nickel, - -	1,5
Sulphur, - - - -	1,
	105,

The excess, instead of the usual loss, proceeds, manifestly, from the oxidizement of the iron, in a considerable, but unknown proportion. I must add, that the proportions of these ingredients vary in different parts of the stone, as is manifest to the eye, and will be immediately more fully evinced. In the analyses of others, should there be found some difference of proportion, it will not therefore necessarily indicate a contradiction. The great point of the similarity of these stones to those which have fallen in other countries, and which have been analysed by Howard, Vauquelin, Klaproth, and Fourcroy, who have been my guides in this investigation, will now, in all probability, be considered as sufficiently established. Had the daily avocations of a course of public lectures allowed the necessary time, I should

have attempted something like a complete analysis of each of the constituent parts of the stone. If circumstances permit, this may still be done; but, in the mean time, a few observations of perhaps some utility may be offered.

II. *Of the Pyrites.*

In the stones in our possession, very few masses of pyrites of any considerable size are to be found; and they are generally so friable, that it was only with great difficulty, and patience, that 20 grains could be collected from 200 or 300 pieces. Their powder is blackish. I digested these 20 grains for 12 hours, in muriatic acid, somewhat diluted, hoping to separate the sulphur, so as to collect it as Mr. Howard had done. But, in this I was disappointed. Only a very few minute portions of sulphur appeared; they did not, as with Mr. Howard, float, but subsided among the earthy sediment; and only enough of them was collected to decide the existence of sulphur, by their burning with the peculiar smell of that substance. During the solution, the smell of sulphuretted hidrogen gas was emitted. As the stone, or, at least, some parts of it, emits the smell of sulphur, when heated, I attempted to procure the sulphur by sublimation. A portion of the powdered stone was placed in a coated glass tube, the upper part of which was kept cold, while the coated part was ignited for an hour, but no sulphur was obtained.

I caused the gas which arose from the solution of the metallic part of the stone in the sulphuric and muriatic acids, to pass into a solution of caustic potash—only a small portion of it was absorbed; the potash became slightly hidro sulphuretted, since it precipitated the acetat of lead, black, and deposited a little sulphur upon the addition of sulphuric acid.

As I had already robbed the specimens of almost every tangible mass of pyrites, and injured them considerably, by the extraction, I was compelled to relinquish the idea of obtaining the exact proportion of the sulphur.

Mr. Howard, in the analysis of the stone of Benares, states the sulphur at 2 parts in 14 of the pyrites, or,

about 15 per cent. If we may suppose these pyrites to be of the same composition, (and their physical properties correspond with Count Bournon's description,) we might deduce the proportion of sulphur from the proportion of pyrites in the stone, for, there is every reason to believe that the sulphur exists in no other part of the stone, except the pyrites, and those masses which have proceeded from their decomposition. It is impossible, however, to separate the pyrites from the other parts of the stone, so as to estimate their proportion exactly; but, they evidently do not exceed one fifteenth of the whole stone. If therefore the sulphur be estimated at 1, it is probable the estimate will not be very erroneous.

The muriatic solution of the pyrites had a greenish colour; ammonia threw down the iron in a black precipitate, becoming rapidly red, when exposed to the air. The filtered fluid gave no traces of magnesia, when examined with caustic potash; but, hidro sulphuret of ammonia gave an abundant precipitate of nickel. Hence these pyrites are composed of iron nickel and sulphur. Having saved the precipitates, I still hope to obtain the proportions of the two former.

III. *The malleable Iron.*

When the stone is pulverized, the magnet takes up, usually, more than 40. I have taken up even 50, but once only 23. This is, however, far from being all iron; there is much adhering earthy matter—some adhering pyrites, and, in short, all the principles of the stone adhere. A separate analysis of the attractable part, gives us nothing different from the results already stated, except an increase in the proportion of metallic matter, and a diminution in that of the earthy principles. The malleable iron contains nickel equally with that in the pyrites. On the other hand, a separate analysis of the unattractable part, presents no other diversity than a diminution of the metallic, and an increase of the earthy principles. I have separated a piece of malleable iron, so large, that by alternately heating and hammering, it was extended into a bar six tenths of an inch long, and one tenth thick; another mass was hammered into a plate more than half an inch in diameter. The attractable

part of the stone dissolves rapidly in the strong acids; the muriatic and the sulphuric, *diluted*, give abundance of hidrogen gas, partially sulphuretted, and, nitric acid gives copious fumes of nitrous gas. In the same masses are found malleable iron—pyrites—and matter in an intermediate condition, intimately blended and adhering to each other.*

IV. *The irregular black masses.*

Some of these appear somewhat regular, like crystals of schorl, but most of them are irregular. While examining them, I found in some, appearances of pyrites in a state of decomposition. This led to a suspicion, that these masses were merely pyrites, which, by the force of heat, had been decomposed more or less completely. Accordingly, on separating a good many portions of these bodies, some were found readily---others feebly--- and others not at all attractable by the magnet. But, the latter, by being heated for a few minutes, with the blow-pipe, became decidedly attractable. As a standard of comparison, some golden coloured pyrites from Peru, were heated by the blow-pipe, to expel the sulphur, and were made to pass through all the shades of colour, and degrees of magnetic attractability, corresponding with the various conditions of the black irregular masses. Little doubt could now remain, that the conjecture concerning their nature was well founded. The glossy interior coating, mentioned in the mineralogical description, appeared to be of the same nature, and to approach nearly to the state of malleable iron.

* It is a curious fact, that the two famous masses of native iron, found in Siberia and Peru, (as well as the native iron of Bohemia and Senegal,) contain nickel; no ore of iron contains nickel----the popular tradition in some of the countries mentioned, is, that *the iron fell from heaven*----the masses are large and heavy, and were found at a distance from any possible source of iron----they are cellular and cavernous, as if some earthy cement had been decomposed and washed out by time; and still, a stony matter, resembling crysolite, and extremely like the hardest parts of the meteoric stones, remains adhering to the iron. No such iron is found in iron mines, and there can now be little doubt that *these masses of native iron are really of meteoric origin*; were the large stone from Weston, in the possession of Col. Gibbs, to be exposed to the weather till the earthy cement was worn away, it would resemble the Siberian and Peruvian iron.

V. *The Crust.*

The black external crust adheres so closely to the earthy matter within, that it is not easy to separate it. Indeed, it appeared scarcely worth while to subject it to a separate analysis, since the blow-pipe sufficiently indicates the difference between it and the rest of the stone. For, on heating any small portion of the stone with the most intense flame that the blow-pipe can give, it becomes covered with a black crust similar to that of the stone. The only point then in which the crust differs from the rest of the stone is, *that it has been changed by strong ignition*, having suffered a sort of vitrification, and its metallic parts a partial oxidizement; I say, partial, for when detached, it is attractable by the magnet, and the file discovers points of malleable iron.

VI. *The globular bodies.*

These appear to be merely portions of the stone, embracing probably all its principles, which have been melted by intense heat, and, being surrounded by solid matter, have become more or less globular, like the globules of metal which appear dispersed through a flux, in a crucible, after an operation with a very high degree of heat, upon a very refractory metal.

The globular bodies in this stone, although not attractable by the magnet, readily become so by being heated with the blow-pipe.

Is the iron in them too highly oxidized to admit of attraction, and, are they partially reduced by ignition on charcoal?---Finally, is there not reason to conclude, that these meteoric stones originally presented nothing distinguishable by the eye, except pyrites, and the enveloping earthy matrix---that, by the operation of heat, the irregular black masses have been produced, by a partial decomposition of the pyrites---that, by a still more intense heat in certain parts, the pyrites have been altogether decomposed, and malleable iron produced---that the crust is produced by a mere oxigenizement and vitrification---that the difference of colour in the earthy part is owing to the unequal operation of heat, the pyrites being left, in some places, especially in the white

spots, almost wholly undecomposed, and that the globular bodies have been formed by a complete fusion of certain portions, by intense ignition.

Yale College, January 14, 1808.

POSTSCRIPT---February 22, 1808.

IN Nicholson's Journal for October, 1806, (No. 61, p. 147,) is an abstract of a memoir by M. Laugier, taken from the 58th volume of the Annals of Chemistry, in which the author asserts the existence of a new principle in meteoric stones, viz. *chrome*. Before adverting to this subject, it will be well to point out another assertion in M. Laugier's memoir, which appears to have been incorrectly expressed.---After remarking, that all chemists who have examined meteoric stones, "have obtained similar results," he enumerates the principles which have been discovered in them, and says they are silex, iron, *manganese*, sulphur, nickel, with a few accidental traces of lime and alumine. It seems plain, that manganese has here been carelessly written instead of magnesia; for, neither Mr. Howard, nor any of the able chemists who succeeded him in the examination of meteoric stones, before M. Laugier, ever found manganese, but constantly magnesia; and as magnesia is not mentioned at all by this latter chemist, I think it is plain that magnesia is intended by him, when he writes manganese. Dismissing this for an inadvertency, we will therefore return to *chrome*.

I have carefully repeated, and somewhat varied and extended the experiments of Laugier, on the discovery of chrome in meteoric stones.

1. A strong solution of caustic potash was boiled for an hour on a portion of the stone in powder---the fluid was filtered---it had a slightly yellowish colour.

2. Nitric acid was added, somewhat in excess, in order that the potash might all be saturated.

3. Nitrat of mercury, recently formed, without heat, was added, but there was no precipitate whatever;---at this stage of the process, Laugier "threw down a red orange coloured precipitate, or chromate of mercury."

4. A small portion of the stone was now fused with pure potash, in a silver crucible, and maintained, for some time, in a red heat;---every thing soluble was then taken up by water---the fluid was filtered, and had a green colour.

5. Nitric acid was added, a little in excess, and then nitrat of mercury as before, but no precipitate ensued; these experiments were several times repeated, and with the same success.

6. Other portions of the fluid resulting from the boiling of potash upon the stone, and from its fusion upon it, and subsequent solution, were now mixed with the nitrat of mercury, without the previous addition of nitric acid. A copious yellow precipitate was thrown down---this was heated to ignition in a platinum crucible---the oxid of mercury was decomposed, and its elements expelled, and a small portion of a green oxid remained in the crucible.

In several repetitions of the process, this invariably occurred.---I had been led to suppose that this was the oxid of nickel, because the alkaline solution from which it had been obtained, gave a black precipitate with the hidro sulphuret of ammonia. Accordingly, on fusing a portion of this oxid with borax, under the blow-pipe, it produced a glass of a hyacinth red; the same fact took place with a portion of a substance known to be the oxid of nickel, which was fused with borax for the sake of comparison.

On fusing a portion of the chromat of lead, or Siberian lead ore, with borax, and afterwards with vitreous phosphoric acid, glasses, of an emerald green colour, were produced.

Hence it was concluded, that the meteoric stones of Weston do not contain chrome, but that the green oxid obtained was the oxid of nickel.

No. XVI.

A VIEW

Of the Theories which have been proposed, to explain the Origin of Meteoric Stones.

BY JEREMIAH DAY,

PROFESSOR OF MATHEMATICS AND NATURAL PHILOSOPHY IN YALE-COLLEGE.

FROM the earliest periods of history, there have been numerous reports of the falling of bodies from the heavens. But, till within a very few years, the subject has been considered, as belonging, rather to fiction and poetry, than to sober philosophy. Men of science, aware, it would seem, of the difficulty of assigning a plausible reason for the descent of masses of stone from the atmosphere, have chosen to intimate, by a significant silence, their disbelief of the accounts which had been given of their fall. But the subject has lately intruded itself on their notice, in a way that has left them without an apology for refusing, any longer, to take it into consideration. A body of evidence has been accumulated, which it would require more ingenuity to explain away, than to account for the phenomena. They have accordingly come forward, at last, with a very liberal supply of hypotheses. These have been proposed, by different persons, and on various occasions; and are scattered among the transactions of philosophical soci-

eties, periodical publications, and fugitive papers. It may be of some service, to collect them into one view; and to compare them with each other, and with the facts which they are intended to explain.

Before a direct examination of the merits of these theories, it will be important to recollect, that the falling of stones is frequently, if not invariably, connected with another phenomenon, the passage through the air of one of those large luminous meteors, which occasionally make their appearance in our atmosphere. When the stones have fallen in the *day* time, the meteor has not always been observed: probably because its light was not sufficiently strong to draw the attention of persons abroad, to that part of the heavens in which it was moving. But, even in this case, the same kind of *report* has been heard, as that which usually follows the explosion of a meteor. In many instances, the luminous body has been seen to come forward to the zenith, and apparently to burst; and, immediately after, the stones have fallen, with a whizzing noise, to the ground.

Meteors of this kind are seen, in some parts of the world, almost every year. They appear moving through the heavens, like balls of fire, or red hot iron. Their apparent diameter is sometimes as large as the moon. From the main body, frequently extends a flame or train. Streams and sparkles of fire seem to shoot out, on every side. Just before their disappearance, there is a violent explosion; by which pieces often appear to be detached, and thrown to the ground.

The same meteor is seen over a great extent of country; in some instances, a hundred miles in breadth, and five hundred in length. Bodies seen from such distant places, at the same time, must have a great elevation. From various calculations, it appears, that, during the time in which they are visible, their perpendicular altitude is generally from twenty to a hundred miles. Their diameter is, in some cases, estimated to be at least half a mile.

Their velocity is astonishingly great. Though they are rarely visible, for more than a minute; yet they are seen to traverse many degrees in the heavens. Their

rate of motion cannot, according to calculation, be generally less than three hundred miles in a minute.

It is not, in every case, known that these bodies project any thing to the earth. It is probable, however, that stones do, in many instances, fall from them without being noticed. For, as they bury themselves a considerable depth in the ground; there could be little chance of their being discovered, unless they were either seen or heard to fall. But the instances in which they have been actually observed to descend through the air, immediately after the explosion, are sufficiently numerous to establish the point, that the stones proceed from the meteor. The two phenomena, therefore, are really but one event: and no hypothesis can be admitted as a satisfactory explanation of the one, which does not, at the same time, account for the other. Whether any of the various conjectures which have been proposed for this purpose are founded in truth, must be determined by making a comparison between the leading features of each, and the facts to which they are intended to be applied.

1. One hypothesis is this; that the materials of which the meteoric stones are composed, are raised into the air in the state of exhalations or gases—that, in the upper regions of the atmosphere, they are occasionally collected in great abundance—that, some of them being inflammable, a combustion takes place—and, that the particles of the whole, by their mutual attractions, rush together, and form a mass, which descends by its weight, to the ground.

To this supposition there are several important objections. In the first place, the principal substances of which these bodies are composed, are never known to be raised in vapour. The ingredients are iron, silex, magnesia, nickel and sulphur. Several of these cannot be evaporated, even by the powerful heat of a furnace. In what way then can they be carried up, fifty or a hundred miles, from the surface of the earth?

But, supposing the materials, by some unknown process, and contrary to all our experience, to be carried into the air, and the bodies to be formed there; what is there in the atmosphere, which could give them their

rapid horizontal velocity? A solid substance elevated to a great height, and left to itself, would *descend* very rapidly. But the motion of a meteor is not, like that of a falling body, perpendicular to the horizon, but almost parallel. Its velocity is such as could not be produced by the atmosphere. The air will not communicate, to a body floating in it, a motion more rapid than its own. The progress of the most violent wind is not more than two or three miles in a minute. But a meteor moves several hundred. The velocity of sound is less than twelve hundred feet in a second: that of a meteor, more than twenty thousand. The greatest force of gunpowder, will throw a cannon ball but a very few miles. A meteor is often seen to move several hundred. Is it not incredible, that a power sufficient to produce such a motion should reside in the atmosphere?

There is still another very weighty objection, to the supposition that these substances are formed in the air. It cannot be true, as the theory would imply, that the body of the meteor falls to the ground. The pieces which come down are only fragments, detached from a much larger mass. This is evident, from the size of the meteors. They are calculated to be several hundred feet in diameter. One which was seen in England and France in 1783, was computed to be almost two miles in circumference. From the various accounts which have been given of that which lately exploded over Fairfield County, in this state, it is evident, that it must have been many thousand times larger than the amount of all the stones which have been found. The whole that has been collected, would not form a sphere two feet in diameter. This, at the distance of fifty miles, would subtend an angle of less than two seconds of a degree: and, therefore, if seen at all, would appear like a fixed star, a mere visible point, too small to be measured by the nicest instruments. But the meteor from which these stones proceeded, had a very considerable apparent diameter, to those who saw it even at greater distances.* It is not pretended that the dimensions can be ascertain-

* Note....It was seen at Wenham, in Massachusetts, 150 miles from the nearest part of its path.

ed with any great degree of accuracy. The appearance is so sudden and unexpected, that no opportunity is afforded of measuring the diameter with an instrument. Some exaggeration is to be expected, from the novelty and splendour of the object, and the surprize of the observer. And it is possible that the apparent dimensions of the meteor may be enlarged, by the flame or glare of light, with which it is sometimes accompanied. But, after making ample allowances on all these accounts, the body will still remain vastly larger than any which has been known to fall to the earth. It cannot be the fact that the luminous object is *principally* flame or vapour. If this were the case, it could not preserve a regular globular figure while moving through the atmosphere with a velocity twenty times as great as that of sound. It would be immediately dissipated. The great body of the meteor must be a solid compact substance, capable of sustaining the resistance of the air. Its magnitude is such, as to illuminate, at once, a region of one or two hundred miles in extent. It is inconceivable, that a body only two or three feet in diameter, however luminous, should attract, at the same moment, the gaze of a whole country; and appear, to the distant spectators, one third, one half, or three fourths as large as the moon. The real diameter of the meteor, according to the lowest computation, must be some hundreds of feet. No such body has ever come to the ground.

Of the meteor which was lately seen in this state, the part that has gone from us, is many thousands of times as great as the sum of all the pieces which have been discovered. After throwing off a few hundred weight from its surface, it must have held on its course, and either revolved round the earth, or gone off to the distant regions of the heavens. It must require a strong faith to believe that the atmosphere, even if furnished with materials, could produce *such* a body, and then give it a velocity sufficient to carry it beyond the circumference of the earth.

2. A second hypothesis is, that the meteoric stones are masses of matter thrown from volcanoes. But this is embarrassed with difficulties as great as the one which

has already been examined. In the first place, the substances which are known to be thrown from volcanoes, are all of a different kind from these stones. No such bodies are found in their craters, or in the neighborhood where the lava has fallen. It may therefore be concluded that none such have ever proceeded from them.

In the next place, the stones have fallen at the distance of several hundreds or thousands of miles from any known volcano. It is next to impossible that they should be carried thus far, by any force which could be applied to them near the surface of the earth. The resistance of the air is so great, that it will not suffer the motion of a body in the lower regions of the atmosphere, to exceed a certain limited rate. This has been ascertained by the numerous experiments which have been made, for the purpose of improving the theory of gunnery. It is found that if the greatest possible velocity be given to a cannon ball, the air will almost immediately reduce it to about eleven or twelve hundred feet in a second. A larger body would indeed be retarded in a less degree. Still, the resistance would be such as to bring it soon to the ground. It requires an initial velocity, greater than that of sound, to carry a cannon ball only three or four miles. Is it not then incredible, that a body a quarter of a mile in diameter, should be thrown from a volcano, with a force sufficient to carry it hundreds or thousands of miles; and that, after having gone this distance through the atmosphere, it should still retain a velocity greater than that, with which a shot issues from the mouth of a cannon? But what decides the point, is, that the meteor after all, does not fall to the ground. It moves on, in a curve, which could not be described by a body, that had commenced its motion at the surface of the earth.

Mr. King has varied this theory,* to accommodate it to the particular circumstances of the fall of stones at Sienna in Tuscany. He supposes that these substances were thrown from a volcano, not in *solid masses*, but in the state of *dust* or *ashes*. Sienna is about two hundred miles from Vesuvius. The shower of stones was the

* See "Remarks concerning Stones said to have fallen from the clouds. By Edward King, Esq. F. R. S. London, 1796."

next day after a great eruption from that well known volcano. Though it is scarcely credible that *solid bodies* could be projected to this distance; yet it is thought not to be impossible that *pulverized* substances should be wafted thus far in the air. Mr. King supposes that a vast quantity of ashes, composed of particles of iron, sulphur, and other ingredients, was thrown from Vesuvius to a prodigious height—that they there formed a cloud, and floated to the region of the atmosphere over Sienna—that when they began to descend, they became so much condensed, as to take fire, and produce numerous explosions—that the pyritical, metallic and argillaceous particles were melted—and that when cooled again, they were consolidated into the masses which were seen to fall to the ground. It is unnecessary to enter into a minute examination of this theory; as it is framed to suit the peculiar circumstances of the fall of stones at Sienna, and is applicable to no other case. It may be sufficient to observe, that, excepting merely the difficulty of getting the materials into the air, it is liable to all the objections which have been stated to the supposition, that the meteoric bodies are produced by *exhalations* from the surface of the earth.

3. Some philosophers, dissatisfied with the methods which have now been mentioned, of accounting for the falling of stones from the heavens, have ascribed to them an origin still more extraordinary. They suppose them to be sent to us from the moon. By the aid of the telescope, luminous spots have been discovered on the moon, which, from their changeable appearance, are supposed to be volcanoes. If bodies can be projected from these, a certain distance towards us; they will never return, but will be drawn away by the superior attraction of the earth. There is a particular point, between us and the moon, in which, if a body were placed, the attraction of the earth and of the moon upon it would be equal. This point is calculated to be twenty-four thousand miles from the moon's center—about one tenth of her distance from the earth.

The velocity with which a body must be thrown from a lunar volcano, to reach this point of equal attraction,

is about ninety miles in a minute—not more than one third of the velocity with which a meteor moves, when near the earth; and only three or four times as great as that with which a ball may be sent from the mouth of a cannon.

The atmosphere of the moon would probably oppose some resistance to the motion of a body passing through it; but far less than ours. It has so little extent and density, that its very existence has long been a subject of dispute among astronomers.

If the earth and the moon were at *rest;* and a body were sent directly from one to the other; it would strike it. But the moon has a revolution round the earth. Every body thrown from her surface, must partake of her motion in this orbit. The path described by a body projected from a lunar volcano, would not, therefore, be a *right line*, directed to the center of the earth; but a *curve*, which would be the result of a combination of the projectile force, the motion of the moon in her orbit, and the power of gravitation.* The body, instead of striking the earth, would probably revolve round it. In some part of its revolution, it might fall within the *atmosphere;* and pieces detached from it, by violence, might be thrown to the ground.

* Note....The editor of the late abridgement of the London Philosophical Transactions, (vol. vi. p. 108,) supposes, "that the apparent motion of the meteor, in a direction almost parallel to the horizon, may be owing to the motion of the earth, in its annual orbit: That, while the body is coming towards us, the earth *glides away*, and leaves it behind." If this were the fact, the motion of meteors ought always to be in a direction contrary to that of the earth in its orbit; and therefore in the plane of the ecliptic. But they are observed to come from various points of the compass. That which exploded over Weston, moved in a direction almost *perpendicular* to the ecliptic. Besides, the motion of the earth in its orbit, is not in a line parallel to the horizon, except at noon and midnight. And indeed, it is not easy to see, how the apparent motion of a body projected from the moon, could be *in any way* affected by the annual revolution of the earth. For the moon has the *same* revolution. A body thrown from one to the other, partakes of the motion, which is common to them both. A ball fired from a ship under sail, at another ship, moving in the same direction, and with the same velocity, would not be prevented, by the motion of either vessel, from striking its object.

This theory can perhaps claim one advantage over the others which have been mentioned, the merit of bare possibility. But its advocates appear not to have taken into consideration the *size* of the meteors, from which the falling stones proceed. They attempt to give an account of those small pieces only, which are actually found on the ground. But these must be a very small portion indeed, of a body a mile or two in circumference. According to the observations of Dr. Herschell, the altitude of the mountains in the moon, does not generally exceed half a mile. These can be little larger than some of the meteors which appear in our atmosphere. Before we acquiesce in this theory then, we must be prepared to believe, not merely that the lunar volcanoes throw a few pieces of lava, as far as the earth; but, that they send us whole mountains.

Nor is this all. Among a number of bodies, thrown at random from the moon, it is not probable, that one in ten thousand would have precisely that direction, and that rate of motion, which would be requisite to cause it to pass through our atmosphere, without falling to the ground. Yet a meteor is seen, in some part of the world, almost every year. To account for this fact, by the theory in question, we must suppose, that thousands of bodies are annually thrown from the moon, each of which is several hundred feet in diameter. A pile of mountains as large as the Andes, would, at this rate, be very soon scattered.

4. There is one other hypothesis, which, though not entirely without difficulties, appears to be encumbered with fewer than any other, which has been offered to the public. Among the manuscripts of the Rev. Thomas Clap, formerly President of Yale College, was found a paper, containing "Conjectures on the nature and motion of Meteors." This was published, some years after his death. It is thought, that the theory of "Terrestrial Comets," which it proposes, may be so modified, as to suit the case of atmospheric stones.

The solar comets, it is well known, revolve round the sun, in very eccentric orbits. In one part of their revolution, they sometimes come so near as almost to strike his body. They then move off, far beyond the orbits of

all the planets; and, in some instances, are gone hundreds of years, before they return. President Clap supposes, that the earth is furnished with its system of comets, as well as the sun----that their size, and the period of their revolutions, are proportioned to the comparative smallness of the primary body, about which they revolve----that, like the solar comet, they fly off, in very elliptical orbits; and, during the greatest part of their circuit, are too far distant to be visible----that, in their approach to the earth, they fall within our atmosphere----that, by the friction of the air, they are heated, and highly electrified----that the electricity is discharged with a very violent report----that they then move off in their orbits, and, by their great velocity, are soon carried out of our sight.

It does not appear, that the learned author of this theory was apprized of the fact, that substances frequently fall from these bodies to the ground. But the scheme requires very little alteration, to accommodate it to this circumstance. We have only to suppose, that, at the time of the explosion, pieces are broken off from the surface of the meteor; and that these fall to the earth, while the main body moves on in its orbit.

The hypothesis, if admitted, will account for most of the phenomena attending the fall of atmospheric stones. The *velocity* of the meteor corresponds with the motion of a terrestrial comet, passing through the atmosphere in an elliptical orbit. A body moving near the earth, with a velocicity less than 300 miles in a minute, must fall to its surface by the power of gravitation. If it move in a direction parallel to the horizon, more than 430 miles in a minute, it will fly off in the curve of an hyperbola; and will never return, unless disturbed in its motion by some other body besides the earth. Within these two limits of 300 miles on the one hand, and of 430 on the other, (some allowance being made for the resistance of the air, and the motion of the earth,) the body will revolve in an ellipsis, returning in regular periods. Now, the velocity of the meteors, which have been observed, has generally been estimated to be rather more than 300 miles in a minute. In some instances, it is perhaps too great, to suffer the body ever to return. But, in most

cases, it is calculated to be such as would be necessary, in describing the lower part of an elliptical orbit.

The *direction* of the motion also, agrees with that of a revolving body; but not at all with that of a mass of matter, accumulated in the atmosphere, and falling, by its weight, to the earth. The *dimensions* of these meteors too, are such, as to indicate, that they move in orbits of their own; as they are manifestly too large to be formed in the air, by an accumulation of gases, or to be thrown from a volcano or the moon. They appear to have about the same proportion to their central body, the earth, as the little planets lately discovered between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter, have, to the sun, about which they revolve.

The theory last stated, though in the main adapted to the purposes for which it was proposed; yet, it must be acknowledged, is not entirely satisfactory, in the explanation of one or two particulars. It assigns a reason for the ignition and explosion of the meteor, which is not perhaps fully warranted by any observations and experiments hitherto made. The stones, when they fall to the ground, are found to be hot. The body of the meteor itself, has the appearance of fire. It is undoubtedly in a state of ignition, at least at the surface. Whence is this powerful heat derived? President Clap supposes it is produced by the friction of the air----that the body, moving with great rapidity through the atmosphere, is both heated and electrified----and that, when it is nearest the earth, the electricity is discharged, with an explosion, as much greater than thunder, as the meteor is farther distant, than the common region of the clouds. It is well known, that *hard* substances may be electrified, and even set on fire, by rubbing them together. But farther proof is wanted, to make it evident, that a body may be made red hot, by the mere friction of the air; especially of air, as greatly rarefied, as it must be, in that part of the atmosphere where the meteors move.*

* Note....Since the discovery of Mr. Davy, that the earths are metallic oxides; it has been suggested, that the bases of magnesia and silex, may originally exist in the meteor, in the state of *pure metal:* and that, when the body comes from some distant region of the heavens, into our atmosphere, a sudden and violent combustion is produced, by the very strong affinity of these substances to oxygen.

There is another circumstance, which is left unexplained, by this theory. In a few instances, particularly that at Sienna, the falling of stones is said to have been accompanied, or preceded, by an apparent burning of the clouds. If this is any thing more than an optical deception, it seems to indicate, a collection of combustible materials in the air. This appearance of fire in the heavens, has been too long before the falling of the stones, to be the *effect* of the passage of the meteor through the atmosphere.

With the exception of these two difficulties, neither of which ought perhaps to be considered as insuperable, the theory, which refers the origin of the meteoric stones to terrestrial comets, appears to be embarrassed with fewer objections, than any of the others which have now been mentioned. None of them, however, can claim to be considered as any thing *more* than theories. They are not yet supported by direct and positive proof. The subject is involved in too much obscurity, to admit of a complete elucidation at once. The enquiry has commenced, with a number of suggestions, which *may* be true; but which must be left, to be confirmed or refuted, by subsequent observations. This is, not unfrequently, the course which scientific investigations must of necessity take. The first step towards an important discovery, is often an ingenious conjecture. This gives the lead to a train of inquiries, which finally succeed, in unfolding the true principles of the subject. It must be granted, that but little progress has, as yet, been made, in explaining the origin, nature, and use, of the bodies, from which the atmospheric stones proceed. But the facts that have been collected, have awakened curiosity. The approach of these meteors, will hereafter be noticed, with uncommon interest. Observations of their motion, will probably be made, with as much accuracy, as the opportunities furnished, by their sudden and unexpected appearance, will admit. But whether the mysteries of the subject will be unveiled, upon a farther investigation, time must determine.

No. XVII.

ORIGIN OF MYTHOLOGY.

BY NOAH WEBSTER, JUN. ESQ.

NO subject of antiquity has more seriously engaged the attention, or confounded the ingenuity of modern historians and antiquaries, than the origin of heathen mythology. It is a field of inquiry in which conjecture has long rambled without control, imagination supplying what authentic history cannot furnish, and the toils of laborious erudition producing but a scanty harvest of truth. Yet the student who finds, in every page of the Greek and Roman classics, some deity intermeddling with human affairs, or presiding over the elements and the operations of nature; the traveller who examines the stupendous temples erected to Jupiter and Mars, to Juno and Venus, or walks over the majestic ruins of Balbec and Palmyra; and the philosopher who traces the progress of man, his customs, institutions and religious ceremonies, is solicitous to pry into the origin of that multifarious machinery of gods and goddesses, whose worship exhausted the wealth, and controlled the passions of the pagan world.

In attempting to unravel this intricate subject, we find, in history, no safe clue to guide us; for the origin of the mythological deities was in ages long anterior to the invention of letters and the art of writing. To increase the perplexity, we meet with an immense mass of fictions

and traditionary tales, introduced by fancy and conjecture, which has been accumulating for almost four thousand years.

The present age has furnished two learned treatises on this subject; the "Analysis of Ancient Mythology," by Mr. Bryant, and a "Dissertation on the Mysteries of the Cabiri," by Mr. Faber. These authors, both men of erudition and celebrity, are entitled to the praise of throwing light on a very obscure subject. But not having resorted, in many instances, to the true sources of correct information, they have probably fallen into numerous mistakes.* Bryant supposes that the war of the Titans relates to the overthrow of Nimrod and his adherents, in the attempt to build Babel. Faber, on the contrary, endeavors to prove that that contest relates to the events of the deluge, and that to the same events are to be referred the mysteries of the Cabiri, or great deities of Greece, as well as the mysteries of Isis, Ceres, Mithras, Bacchus, Rhea and Adonis. He maintains that the characters in Grecian and Indian mythology, under the names of Deucalion, Ogyges, Saturn, Janus, Uranus, Cronus, Atlas, Dagon, Inachus, Phoroneus, Argus, Menu and Minyas, Taut or Thoth, Hermes, Mercury, Budha, Fohi, Woden, Bacchus, Osiris, Adonis, Hercules, Pluto, Vulcan, Brahma, Vishnou, and Seeva, all represent Noah, venerated as a prince, or worshipped with the sun as a deity.

* These gentlemen have assumed, as the basis of their etymologies, certain primitive or elementary words, found in the oriental languages, most of which they have correctly explained, but the radical sense of several of them, they have evidently mistaken. Both of them, however, have, in my opinion, misapplied a number of these elements. Faber in particular, has, if I mistake not, fallen into numerous errors. In many instances he has even made the terminating syllable of Greek and Latin words, which is almost always the article, ος, *us*, &c. a radical noun. An inattention to this fact has been a fruitful source of mistakes on this subject. Thus the river *Cyrus*, is the oriental *Kur*, with the article ος, us, added by the Greeks and Romans; *Euphrates*, is the oriental *Forat*, or *Phrat*; *Indus*, is *Ind* or *Sind*; Ganges, is *Ganga*, or *Gonga*. The same is the fact with most words which we receive through Greek and Roman channels, whether native words of Greece and Italy, or foreign words which their writers had occasion to use.

Bryant, on the authority of Virgil, Macrobius, Servius, Athenagoras, Pausanias and other writers, ventures to affirm that most or all the Greek and Roman deities were in fact *one*, or that they referred primarily to the sun. That the Greeks and Romans confounded their characters, is certain; but that Saturn, Jupiter, Dionusus, Apollo, Hermes, Pan, Pluto, Ceres, and most of the other deities, all originated in the worship of the sun, or had primarily the same character and functions, is extremely improbable.*

Gebelin, on the other hand, has endeavored to prove that the deities worshipped by the ancients, represented the heavenly orbs, and constellations which governed or influenced the seasons; or the seasons and physical events by which agriculture was regulated, and on which the primary ocupations of men depended for success. His explication of the offices of the deities is extremely ingenious, and in my opinion far more satisfactory, than those of any writer whose works I have seen. Yet I think his opinions susceptible of correction and material improvement; indeed, his explanation of the names of the deities, is generally erroneous.†

In the course of my philological researches, but without any particular design to investigate the Pagan mythology, I have probably discovered the true origin of some of the supposed deities of antiquity. And from the facts discovered, it appears probable, that the principal, if not the only safe guide to direct us to the real origin of a

* See Bryant's Analysis, vol. i. et passim.—Faber, vol. i. Cluver, citing the authority of Macrobius, in his Saturnalia, lib. i. ca. 17, assents to his opinion, that all the names of the gods referred to the sun, and those of the goddesses, to the moon; and adds that all of them "ad unum, verum, aeternumque Deum esse referenda."---Lib. i. 26. All history is full of testimonies to the extensive worship of the sun. Not only was this luminary the object of worship among the Persians, under the name of *Mithras*, and among the Sabeans in Chaldea and Arabia, but among the Scythian nations, the Celts and Teutones. The Massagetæ, says Herodotus, lib. i. 216, sacrificed horses to the sun, *their only deity*. But this does not prove that all the names of deities had reference to the sun.

† See his Allegories Orientales, in his Monde Primitif. vol. i. and his Histoire du Calendrier, in vol. iv.

pagan deity, is, the signification of his name, in the first or primitive language in which it was used. Whenever the original sense of the name coincides with the primitive office or most prominent features of the character, we may safely conclude that we have arrived at the origin of the deity, or the circumstance which gave him birth.

The first or oldest of the Pagan deities is said to have been *Saturn* or *Cronus*. He is represented by the ancient writers as the son of *Coelus* and *Terra*, or of *Uranus* and *Terra*, the heaven and the earth. Faber considers Saturn and Janus as the same deity, and the same as Cronus or Noah, and the sun. Bryant supposes the name composed of *sait-our*, the Olive of Orus, a deity; and *Janus*, he derives from ονος, a dove. Bochart thinks it clear that Saturn was Noah.*

Gebelin supposes Cronus or Saturn to be an allegorical personage, representing not only *time*, but the operations of agriculture. The Greek name, χρονος, he alledges to be formed from the primitive name of a horn, *keren*, *cornu*, and figuratively representing power, force, grandeur. *Saturn*, he deduces from שרי, a sower, the author of production. In this he is probably correct, but he leaves the last syllable unexplained.†

But there is no difficulty in tracing the origin of this deity. *Cronus*, a Greek word signifying a year or time in general, is a Celtic word signifying *round*, *circular*, in Welch *krun*, in Irish and Gaelic, *cruin*; a word which is most probably a compound of כר, a circuit, and *on*, the sun, the circular orb. The Irish *grian*, the sun, is probably of like origin, or the same word varied by dialect. *Cronus* then is the sun, or the annual revolution of that orb; a great circle; the measure of a year; hence a year, or time in general.

This etymology coincides with the opinion of Macro-

* Faber, vol. ii. 31.—Boch. Geog. Sac. lib. i. 1.—Bryant, vol. ii.—Hesiod's Theog.—Virg. Æn. viii. 319.

† History of Saturn, Monde Prim. vol. i. p. 38. 40. *Cronus*, and *keren*, *cornu*, a horn, are children of a common parent—both named from their *rotundity*, but they have no other relation to each other. We have the same word in *corona*, *crown*, from its figure.

bius, who informs his readers that Cronus is the sun, and the author of time, or the seasons.*

On, the oriental name of the sun, signifies also, a circle, and probably from the same source as the Celtic *ean*, *ain*, a circle, the Hebrew עין, the Ethiopic *oin*, an eye, from its roundness; also, a fountain, and in the Amharic, a grape.†

On, the sun, was worshipped in Syria and Egypt. Hence we read in scripture of Potiphera, a priest of On, that is, of the sun; of *Amon*, or *Hammon*, a title of the sun, or deity of Thebes—*cham* or *ham*, heat, and *on*, the circular orb of the sun.‡

Hence the name used in Genesis xiv. 18, עליון, *Olion*, rendered the *Most High.* Melchi-zedek is called כהן לאל עליון priest to the most high God. In a fragment of Sanchoniathon, as translated by Philo, and preserved by Eusebius, this word is explained in the same manner. Κατὰ τουτους γίνεται τὶς Ελιουν καλουμενος ΥΨΙΣΤΟΣ. Then lived a certain *Elion*, called the *Most High.*§

This word is composed of על high, and עין *ean*, *ain*, *on*, a circle or orb; and originally was applied to the sun; and we observe this root *on*, incorporated into many words expressing the idea of a circular figure; as in the Hebrew עד English *bind*, *bond*, *bound*, *round*, Celtic *cruin*, Latin *rotundus.*

From the same root, *on*, *ain*, a circle, the Latins formed *annus*, a year, and *annulus*, a ring, that is, a little circle. The same word is the basis of *Janus*, the Roman deity, which was represented by a figure with two faces, emblematical of the past and coming year. His name

* "Saturnus ipse, qui auctor est temporum, et ideo a Græcis immutata litera Κρονος, quasi, χρονος vocatur, quid aliud nisi sol intelligendus est?"....*Saturnalia*, *lib.* i. *ca.* 22. I copy this passage from Faber, vol. ii. p. 31, not having the original to consult.

† Parkhurst's Lex.—Focaloir. Gaoidhilge-Sax.Bhearla.—Ludolf's Lex. Eth. 461. Amhar. 73.

‡ Gen. xli. 45.

§ See Gen. xiv. 18, 19, 20, and xl. 17.—Deut. xxviii. 1.—Gebelin's Alleg. Orient. Hist. de Sat. vol. i. p. 5.

was originally written *Eanus*, which was the Celtic *ean*, a circle, with the Greek article ος.*

From this deity, it has been conjectured, *janua*, a gate, and *January*, the first month, received their names. But *Janua* is from the common root of the Irish *gion*, the mouth, and the English *yawn;* while *January*, in Irish, Celtic *gionbhar*, is a compound of *gion*, mouth, opening, and *var*, a day, a revolution, a circle, still subsisting in Hindoostanee, and corresponding with *bar*, the root of many words in European languages. It forms the termination of *September*, *October*, *November* and *December*.†

Saturn, the Latin name which corresponds to the Greek κρονος, is probably a compound of *sat*, *sed*, שר, *Sator*, father, Creator, Lord, the root of the modern Arabic *seid* or *seyd*, a title given to the descendants of Mahommed, and of *urn*, the root of *turn*. The latter root is seen in *diuturnus*, *aeternus*, *diurnus*, *hodiurnus;* it is in the Icelandic language, denoting *duration;* and is evidently the Coptic *ornos*, heaven. The radical sense of this word, therefore, is a *circle;* and we observe the Latin *fornix*, an arch, with a different prefix to *urn*, and *fornax*, *furnus*, a *furnace*, an oven, formed in the same root, from their circular figure. *Saturn* then signifies, the *father time*, or time the author of production. Possibly, however, the first syllable may be from the Celtic *seather*, strong, a title given to the deity by the Irish.

Saturn is called the oldest of the gods; and from the destructive effects of time, he is very significantly represented as armed with a sythe, the emblem of destruction and mortality. Hence the fable that Saturn devours his own *children*, seems to be derived from his name and

* Faber on the Cabiri, vol. i. 77. from Macrobius Saturn. lib. i. ca. 9. In Greek, his name was Ιαν, precisely the Celtic *ean*, the root of both the Latin and Greek names; καὶρ Ιανε πρωτογον ζευ αφθιτε. See Hymn to Proclus. Pausanias, iii. 272. translation. Let it be remarked once for all, that the termination of Greek names, ος, η, ον, which the Romans changed to *us*, *a*, *um*, are the Greek article added to names and attributes for the purpose of distinguishing gender and case, and must always be removed in order to discover the radical word.

† Vallancey, Orient. Collections, vol. ii. 115.

character, as *sator*, the sower, the parent of productions, which ultimately fall before his all-devouring sythe.*

That the syllable *urn*, in Saturn, signifies *round*, we have this further evidence, that in Irish Celtic, *Saturday* is called *Dia Sathruin*. Here *ruin*, is the Celtic *cruin*, *round*.

Uranus, the same as *Coelus*, says *Lempriere*, is from the same root as *Cronus*, *ean*, *ain*, a circle; but probably with the oriental, *ur*, fire, the root of *uro*, to burn, and of אש, and *fire*, prefixed. *Ur*, is the root of *Orus*, or Horus, an Egyptian deity and son of Osiris and Isis, and the same as Apollo, the sun.† Hence *Uranus* signifies, according to its radical terms, the *fiery orb*, or *circular fire*, and signified originally the sun, as *Urania* did the moon; and also the heavens, the illuminated concave, the Coelus.‡

From these etymologies, which I believe to be indisputable, we infer the true origin of Cronus or Saturn.---This deity is nothing more than *time* or *duration personified*. The primitive nations gave to time or duration the names of the circle, circles, or revolutions of orbs, by which time is divided into regular portions or periods.---Hence Cronus is represented in fable as the son of *Coelus* and *Terra*; the offspring of the heaven and the earth; or the effect of the revolutions of the great orbs which compose the system. After the original of these names was lost or obscured, the fancy of men, unrestrained by correct historical or astronomical knowledge, gradually formed them into superior beings possessing life and intelligence.

* Hesiod. Theog. 137. Virg. Æn. viii. 319.—שדי is frequently used in the Hebrew Scriptures, and in union with *al* or *aleim*, is translated *God Almighty*. In Schmidt's Latin Version, these words are rendered, Deus Fulminator.

† Herod. Uterpe. 144. *Ur* is the Hebrew אור light, or חרה to burn, to heat.

‡ In the Cantabrian dialects, we observe that the name of heaven is the very root of *cronus*, viz. *cirena*, or *carena*, from the Celtic *crun*, round.—Chamberlayne's Oratio Dominica, p. 44. The Coptic name of heaven, *ornos*, seems to be from the root of *turn*, *furnus*. In Arabic, *curana*, in Chaldaic, *cren*, or *caran*, is a circle. It is the Celtic *crun*.

Coelus, or heaven, that is, without the termination or article, *Coel*, is the Celtic Irish *Ceal*, heaven, the Greek κοίλος, concave, hollow, from a root whose signification is *bending*, *hollow*, Hebrew קלה to scoop out, English *hole*, *hollow*. This name of heaven, then, is given to the vault over our heads, from its apparent concavity. Hence in in Hindoo, *Cala* is time, probably from the apparent revolution of the heavenly orbs. And it deserves notice that the Teutonic *himel*, heaven, is formed from *Cam*, *ham*, crooked, bending, arched; and hence it signifies not only *heaven*, but a canopy.

Terra, the earth, is formed from the Celtic *tir*, earth.

In the creation, Hesiod makes chaos to precede the formation of the earth, but he makes the earth, the first constructed body, the parent of Coelus; or Ουρανος, made as a canopy for the earth and the seat of the gods. The earth in conjunction with heaven produced the Ocean, Thea, Rhea, Japet, and several other deities, with the Cyclops and giants.*

Titan is represented as being the son of Coelus and Terra, and the brother of Saturn. "The most ancient mythologists," says Lempriere, "make no mention of Titan. The name is applied to Saturn by Orpheus and Lucian; to the sun by Virgil and Ovid, and to Prometheus by Juvenal."†

* See Hesiod's Theog. v. 116—and Ovid's Metam. lib. i.

Ante mare et tullus, et, quod tegit omnia, Coelum,
Unus erat toto naturæ vultus in orbe,
Quem dixere chaos; rudis indigestaque moles.

† In nemus ire parant, ubi primos crastinus ortus,
Extulerit *Titan*, radiisque retexerit orbem.
Virg. Æn. iv. 118.

Nullus adhuc mundo praebebat lumina *Titan*.
Ovid. Metam. i. 10.

Et meliore luto finxit praecordia *Titan*.
Juven. Sat. xiv. 35.

That *Titan* and *Prometheus* were used as different names of the same object, is evident from the fact, that the ancients considered them as the immediate agents in creating man, or infusing into him his intellectual principle, the etherial fire. See *Prometheus* in the sequel.

Titan is certainly a denomination of the sun, and probably of Celtic origin. It is the Irish *Tethin*, sun, formed from *teith*, heat, with *on*, or from *di*, *ti*, light, the root of *deus*, *day*, *dies*, with the Celtic *tan*, *teine*, fire, written in other dialects *zan*, *tzan*, *sun*. The syllable *ti* or *di*, the root of *dies*, *dius*, Διος, signifies in Chinese, high, elevated. The radical idea may be *high*, or *light*; for the early nations of the world used the same word to express very different ideas, when bearing some analogy to each other, as we still use *great*, *high*, *illustrious* and *splendid*. I find on tracing words to their primitive roots, that the same words are used to express *high*, *head*, *chief*, *great*, *illustrious*, *prince*, and other similar ideas.*

Jupiter, says Bochart, is Ham or Cham, the son of Noah. Faber observes that although under the name of *Jupiter* or *Hammon*, the Egyptians worshipped their ancestor *Ham*, yet this deity seems not unfrequently to be Noah himself. He then proceeds to retail the ancient fables respecting his birth and offices, as if he had been a real being.†

Jupiter is usually supposed to be compounded of *Jove* and *pater*, father Jove. Vallancey supposes the last syllables of the name to be the Irish *peiter*, a thunderbolt.‡

Jupiter is indeed a compound word of which *Jove*, *Jah*, the *Jehovah* of the Jews, is certainly the basis. The origin of this name exhibits, in a striking manner, the process of forming language. In most languages, as far as my information extends, the terms used to signify *spirit*, or the intellectual principle, are primarily the names of *breath*, *air*, *wind*; as *anima* and *animus*, ανεμος, *spiritus*, πνευμα..... Now the Hebrew word יהוה *Iheue* or *Iove*, from the verb חוה *heue*, or *eue*, *to exist*, that is, to *breathe*, is a mere onomatope; an imitation of a strong expiration, or for-

* Gebelin. Monde Prim. vol. i. 51, and ii. 63. It is worthy of remark that the Teutonic nations form their word *day*, from *ti*, *di*, or *dis*, light; while the Slavonic nations use our word *sun* for the same purpose, calling *day*, *dzen*, or *dzien*....Cluver. Germ. Antiq. lib. i. 26.

† Bochart, lib. i. ca. 8.—Faber, vol. ii. 292.

‡ Orient. Coll. ii. 102–7. Has this name any connection with the *Yapet* or *Japet* of the Hindoos? *Jyapeti* is Lord of the earth. Asiat. Res. iii. 312.

cible emission of breath, intended to express an idea of *breath* or *life*, and of course *spirit*. In its primary sense, then, *Jove* is *breath* or *air;* hence the character of Jupiter among the Pagan nations, who uniformly considered him as the deity that presided over the atmosphere.

As breath or air among most nations is made to represent the immaterial principle, soul, spirit, the Jews at first used, and Christians at present, use the word *Jehovah* to signify the universal, eternal and infinite spirit, or Supreme being. From the same aspiration, variously modified, have sprung many words signifying *being* or *life;* as to *be*, Welch; *buy*, to live; Greek Βιοω, Latin *vivo*, Greek ειω.*

Apollo, it is universally agreed, is the sun. The name, in Celtic, *abellio*, is formed from *ab el*, the father sun, or more probably from *ball*, *bol*, a round body, from its figure. It is the *bel*, *belus*, of the orientals.

Phoebus, Φοίβος, from Φαω, to shine, another name of the sun, scarcely requires an explanation.

The worship of this luminary, the sun, was not confined to the east; it was common among the Celtic and Teutonic nations, and under the same name *Bel*, or *Beal*. This fact is proved by a word which remains in the Irish language to this day. In ancient times, it was customry in Ireland for the druids, on May day, to make large fires on the summits of hills, and drive cattle through them, to secure them against contagious distempers; using, at the same time, certain ceremonies for the expiation of the sins of the people. On that day, all the inhabitants extinguished their fires, and lighted them from the sacred fires of the druids. This practice gave name to the month of May, which is still called the month of *Beal-tine*—the month of *Bel's fire*.†

There is another fact equally evincive of the prevalence of Sabianism in Germany. Tacitus, in his An-

* Hebricians inform us that the radical sense of יהוה is to *settle* or *subside;* a singular explanation of *existence!!*

† Focaloir, p. 44.—Cesar informs us, in a passage to be hereafter cited, that the Gauls considered Apollo, the sun, as the power that preserved them against diseases.

nals, informs us, that Germanicus, when making war upon the *Marsi*, within the modern diocese of Munster, destroyed a temple called *Tanfane*, which was held in the highest veneration by the inhabitants. *Tanfane*, *tan* or *teine*, fire, the sun, and *fanum*, a temple, signifies the *Temple of the Sun*. This is a remarkable fact; for we read of no other temple of the kind, among the primitive Celts or Teutones of Europe; and the Druids of Britain had no covered temples. The fact however seems to warrant an opinion, that as those nations advanced in improvement, they began to imitate the practice which prevailed in the east and south, of erecting durable edifices for worship—a practice which was perhaps interrupted first by the Roman conquests, and afterwards by the introduction of Christianity.*

Of the origin of *Mars*, *Mavors*, the god of war, there are various opinions. The name is generally supposed to be formed from the Greek αρης, *iron*, as iron is the principal instrument of war; and the use of *Martial*, in the old chemistry, to express what belongs to iron, seems to favor this opinion. The word may equally well be deduced from the Greek ερις, contention, rixa, according to the opinion of Cluver, who informs us that this deity was called by the ancient Celts, *Net*, a word, which, in the old Egyptian, as in some modern dialects of Germany, signifies *contention*.† In some parts of Germany, *dies Martis*, or Tuesday, is called *Erich-tag*, Erick's day; and *Erich* was a common name of princes and oth-

* Tacit. Ann. lib. i. 51.—Murphy's Note on the passage, vol. i. 473.—Cluver. Germ. Antiq. lib. i. ca. 26. The latter author gives a ludicrous explanation of the word *Tanfane—Th'anfang* the beginning. The word *fanum* seems to be formed from the Celtic *maen* or *vaen*, a stone—and the first places of worship seem to have been inclosures of stones.

† The word in Irish is *Neith*, battle, fight; and Cluver informs that this was the Egyptian orthography....*lib.* i. *ca.* 28. He cites passages from Plato in Timaeo, and from Macrobius, who expressly mention this Egyptian deity. The existence of this word *Neith*, in the Egyptian and Celtic languages, in Spain, Ireland and Germany, is a fact worthy of notice. It is probably the root of the Latin *nitor*. In Swedish, *nit* is zeal.

er distinguished characters, among the Teutonic nations. It is doubtless the word found in the composition of many Greek names of heroes, or princes, some of them said to exist in the fabulous ages, as Erechtheus, and Erichthonius, the latter of whom was supposed by the Greeks not to have been a mortal, but the son of Vulcan and the earth.* We have the simple word in *Eryx*, a fabulous hero, who wrestled with Hercules.† And indeed the word is no other than the Latin *rixa*, contention, struggle, exertion.

Of the origin of Mars, and the connection of his name with iron, the following appears to be a satisfactory explanation.

In the primitive languages, the word אור *ar*, *oir*, *ur*, signifies light or fire; Hebrew אור light, Hiberno-Celtic *ur*, fire, whence πυρ, and *fire*; *or*, gold, from its shining color, whence *aurum*; oir, golden, and the Celtic *oirthear*, eastern, from the light of the rising sun. Hence the Latin *orior*, *oriens*, from the same circumstance.

From אור the Hebrews formed מארת *mart*, a light, a luminary....Genesis i. 14, 16—and אורים, *urim*, brilliants, set in the breast plate of the high priest....Exodus 28. Hence the English *ore*, and the Greek αρης, polished iron, from their shining appearance.

Another root of equally extensive use, if indeed it was not originally from the same stock, is בר, *ber* or *bar*, to be clear, ברה *berhe*, bright, which with הל, to shine or glisten, forms the French *briller*, whence we have *brilliant*. With this root corresponds the Arabic verb בהר *behr*, to shine or be splendid, and the Hebrew בהיר *beir*, bright, resplendent.

From the same stock, sprung the Ethiopic *berhe*, bright, lucid, resplendent, which is precisely the Hebrew ברח. Hence the Ethiopic verb *barhe*, he shone; and the nouns *barhe*, refulgence, *beron*, light, brightness, *berar*, silver, and *brat*, or *bart*, *brass*.

In the Amharic, the present prevailing, but demonstrably the oldest dialect of Ethiopia, *ber* is silver, the Ethiopic *berar*; *bar*, a verb, he shone, luxit, splenduit; *berhe*, lucid, refulgent; *beron*, light, splendor; *mebart*,

* Paus. lib. i. ca. 2. † Paus. lib. iii. ca. 16.

a light, or that which shines; *beron*, parchment, the root of *membrana*, from its clearness, a word whose origin I have never seen explained; and it is the same in both dialects of Ethiopia. Now it is remarkable that in this dialect, *bart* or *bert*, signifies iron, and *berto*, is *fortis*, brave; the verb *bert*, is to acquire strength, and *bertet*, is force, strength, hardness, *fortitude*. Who does not see in these words the Latin *virt*-us, *fort*-is, *fortit*-udo; the Italian *forza*, *force*; and the French and English, *brave*, in *berhe*, or *barhe*, bright?

It will perhaps be suggested that *vires*, *virtus*, *fortis*, originated in *vir*, a man, and this, in the Hebrew גבר, geber, to be strong: But I am satisfied that these words conveying the idea of *strength* or *courage*, are all from the radical sense of בר, bright, to be shining, splendor.

Men, in their primitive state, had no words to express abstract ideas. They first gave names to *visible* objects, qualities and actions; and to express abstract ideas or moral qualities, used some word expressing an idea of a sensible object or quality, which, in their opinion, had some analogy or similitude to the abstract idea. Now what terms so naturally express *strength* and *bravery*, as those which signify that striking visible quality, *brightness*, *splendor?* We observe the same connection of ideas still in use among our common people, who characterize a person of unusual powers of mind or body, by the epithet *bright*—he is a *bright fellow*, or a *bright genius*.

It is a fact confirmatory of this opinion, that among all the Celtic nations, the Latin *vir*, or the equivalent term, was pronounced *baro*, or *bero*, precisely the Ethiopic and Amharic *barhe*, or *berhe*, bright.* In the authors of the middle ages, the word is written *baro*, *varo*, *varro*, *bero*, *bir*, *paro*, and *viro* or *viron*. See *Spelman's Glossary*,

* "Concurritur ad Cassium defendendum; semper enim *berones*, compluresque evocatos cum telis secum habere consueverat." Hirt. Pansæ de Bel. Alex. 42. These *barones*, barons, were the retainers or body guards of the German chiefs, young men of distinguished bravery, mentioned by Tacitus. "Principum, cui plurimi et acerrimi comites, hæc dignitas, hæ vires, magno semper electorum juvenum, globo circumdari, in pace decus, in bello præsidium"....De Mor. Germ. 14.

under *baro*. This is the modern *baron*, a man of bravery, a soldier, in its peculiar application, during the martial and feudal ages.

In conformity to the same ideas, our Saxon ancestors, used the word *bright*, as an affix to the names of princes, as in *Ethelbert;* the Saxon orthography *berht* corresponding exactly with the Ethiopic, *bert, berto.*

In the Celtic languages, *mar*, bright, corresponds with the oriental root ברר, by the change of *b* into *m*—a change so frequent in the ancient languages, as to occasion neither surprize nor embarrassment. Hence the Latin *Mars, Martis*, corresponding with the Hebrew מארד, mart, a luminary, is brightness, or bravery personified, and constituted the god of war. And hence we see the reason why the names of iron, silver, gold and brass, in various languages, have a common origin with Mars.*

It may be remarked further, that the English word *brand*, a sword, received its appellation from the same idea of brightness; being merely the participle of the Saxon *brennen*, or rather the Swedish *branna*, to burn, to shine. We still retain the use of the word, but apply it to a different object.

The latin *Mavors* seems to be formed from the same radical word as *Mars;* perhaps by corrupting *mars*, or *vir*, into *vors*, and prefixing the oriental *ma*, great.

The English word *war*, which is of Celtic origin, in French *guerre*, seems allied to the root of *Mars*, and *ferrum*, as Gebelin has observed; but the fact may not be unquestionable; for *guerre* bears a strong resemblance to the ancient *gerrha*, an oblong shield, used by the Persians; and if this word is the root of *guerre*, the radical sense of war is to *shield*, to protect, or defend. And it is to be observed that *war* and *guard*, *guerre* and *garantir*, may be easily deduced from one radical sense.†

* See Parkhurst, under the radical words mentioned, and Ludolf's Lex. Eth. Column. 231. and Amharic. Col. 40, 41.

† Φορουντες γαρ μικρα δορατια και επιμηκεστερα οπλα κατα τους Κελτικους θυρεους, η τα γερρα τα Περσων.

Bearing small spears and more oblong shields, like the Celtic Thureoi, or the *gerra* of the Persians....*Pausanias, Arcadics.* ch. 50. The same author, in his Phocics, describes this shield as made of small twigs, or wicker work.

Faber supposes *Mars* to be the solar orb, from the Hebrew חרס, cheres, used in Job ix. 7; otherwise the Babylonian *Belus;* and under this name, he supposes Noah was anciently worshipped.*

I would only remark further, that the *Berith* and *Baal-Berith* of the Scriptures, is unquestionably this same deity, *Mars.* Parkhurst is correct in deducing ברית from בר: but mistakes the meaning of the word. *Berith*, is the Ethiopic *barto, bright, brave, fortis*, the god of war.---- See Judges viii. 33, and ix. 46.

Hercules, says Faber, was *Arech-El*, the solar god of the Ark, or Noah. Bryant supposes the Herculeans to have been Cushites of great enterprize, who rambled over the earth, building cities, establishing the worship of the sun, and performing great achievments. Capt. Wilford, of the Asiatic Society, supposes Hercules to be the same character as the *Heracula* of India, representing the race of *Heri* or Jupiter.†

Gebelin considers Hercules as the representative or protector of agricultural improvements, the culture of the earth, or in general, the labors of men united in civil society. He supposes Saturn, Cronus, or Osiris to represent the *invention* of agriculture, and Hercules, the cultivation of the earth—and hence he is called the General of Osiris.‡

To discover the real origin of this fabulous deity, we are to find the meaning of his name. This is easily found in his principal characteristic, *labor;* for amidst all the confusion which ignorance and fiction have engendered on this subject, the *labors* of Hercules are proverbially attached to his history. This characteristic leads us directly to the origin of his name, which is formed of the root of *work, erk*, in German and Dutch *werk*, whence the Greeks formed εργον and εργαζομαι, with κλεος, fame, praise.

* Faber on the Cabiri, vol. i. 175.

† Bryant's Analysis, vol. ii.—Faber, i. 125, 240,—Asiat. Res. vol. iii. 408, and v. 270. The Indian *heri*, is probably the Irish *Ęarr*, Latin *herus*, Lord; and the Indian *Bel*, or *Bola*, is undoubtedly the Hebrew and Ethiopic *Bal* or *Baal*, Lord. These words correspond in sense with *Hercules*, but had no primitive connection.

‡ Alleg. Orient. Hist. d'Hercule. Monde Prim. vol. i. p. 173.

Hercules, then, is a common name of any *famous worker*; any person of distinguished *labors*, or achievments; and ancient authors alledge that there were many persons of this name.*

Hercules, then, was a name originally given to any bold, enterprizing hero or adventurer; any distinguished warrior, hunter, or robber, who, at the head of a tribe or band, performed extraordinary feats of valor. The application of this name to the sun, or to the zodiac, the twelve labors of Hercules representing the twelve signs or months, if it is not altogether a fiction, must have been long posterior to the origin of the name, and its application to individuals of enterprize.† This inference is naturally drawn from the statues and figures of Hercules, which represent him as covered with the skin of a lion, and armed with a knotted club. These circumstances prove his origin to have been in the most rude and savage state of man, when his clothing consisted of skins, and his arms of a rude, unshapen club, the first instrument of death among men, before the knowledge or use of metals; and indeed as Hercules bears not a bow and arrows, we may conclude that his character was formed before the invention of those weapons. *Hercules*, then, originated in the very earliest ages of man, and represents a savage warrior or hunter, clothed with a skin, and armed with a club. His character being formed and attached to this name, the name was, in subsequent periods of society, applied to any bold, enterprizing chief of a warring or migrating horde, whose *labors* or achievments became the subject of songs, and were handed down by tradition, perverted by fancy or ignorance, and embellished by fiction. These fables were afterwards committed to writing, and now form the basis of the pagan mythology, and even of the Greek and Roman poems and history.

* Quamquam, quem potissimùm Herculem colamus, scire sane velim; plures enim tradunt nobis ii, qui interiores scrutantur et reconditas literas....*Cicero De Nat. Deor. lib.* iii. 16. This author enumerates six of this name, and mentions that one of them, a native of India, was called *Belus*.

Ηρακλεῖ δὲ ως πολλους τε καί καλεπους τελεσίεν αθλους. Hercules performs many and difficult labors....*Paus. lib.* viii. 32.

† See Gebelin's History of Hercules.

In the obscurity which these fables have thrown on the history of the pagan deities, we have little certain light, except what is derived from the radical sense of their names, and from the drapery and appendages of their statues. The former have retained their primitive signification, and the latter their form—and the club of Hercules, like the Latin *pugno*, to fight, from *pugnus*, the fist, bears along the stream of time an imperishable memorial of the manner of fighting in the age when the character and name of Hercules originated.*

Bacchus, says Bryant, was Cush, the grand-son of Noah. Bochart forms his name from *bar-chus*, the son of Cush, and supposes him to have been the celebrated *Nimrod*. Faber maintains that Bacchus was Noah himself, and the revels of this deity have been fancied to bear some allusion to the intoxication of the diluvian patriarch. Wilford has strangely supposed that *Bacchus* is a title corrupted from the Indian *Bhagavat*, or preserving power. Gebelin, on the contrary, alledges and attempts to prove, that Bacchus was the same as the sun; that at first he was an allegorical being, representing the influences of the sun in producing and ripening corn and the vine; and afterwards he was considered as an illustrious personage, the author of these productions.†

But in truth Bacchus is an imaginary being, whose name was formed from the Celtic *bach*, drunk, by the addition of the Greek article. In Irish, *bach* is drunk, *bacchaire* a drunkard, and *bachla* is the root of the Latin *poculum*, a cup. *Bacchus*, then, is neither more nor less than hard drinking or intoxication personified, and in progress of time, exalted into a deity. He was also called Dionysus, or Dionysius, and Cicero informs us that "Dionysos multos habemus," we have many Bacchuses. The number, it is believed, has not been diminished by time.‡

Bacchus is represented by the figure of an effeminate

* See Herod. Euterpe, 44, 45.

† Bryant's Analysis, i. 257. 4°.—Bochart. Geog. Sac. lib. i. ca. 1.—Faber, vol. i. 155.—Gebelin, vol. iv. 541.—Asiat. Res. iii. 352, 395.

‡ Cicero De Nat. Deor. lib. iii. 23. *Bach* radically signifies a hollow, a cup, or bowl; so that *Bacchus* is literally the personification of a cup or bowl.

boy, some times holding a thyrsus, and a cluster of grapes with a horn, and crowned with vine and ivy leaves. He also sits upon a globe, bespangled with stars; and often appears naked, riding upon the shoulders of Pan. The last circumstance may perhaps be an emblem of the effects of wine in giving courage, and of the bacchanalian's contempt of fear.

Mercury, according to Bryant, was the sun. Faber believes him to have been the solar Noah. Bochart supposes him to have been Canaan, because he presided over commerce; while Cluver labors to prove that *Thoth* or *Taut*, the Egyptian Mercury, was really the true God, who was worshipped in ancient Germany, under the title of *Tuisto*. From this deity, he supposes the Germans received their common appellation of *Teutons*. Faber forms the name from *M'erech-ur, the great burning divinity of the ark!!*

Gebelin alledges this name to be Celtic, and compounded of *merc-ure*....(*mark* and *vir*) a man of marks, letters, or signs, as he was the deity of speech, and interpreter of the gods. The usual derivation of his name is from the Latin *merx*, trade. But Gebelin supposes the Hebrew סחר, (whence merx) signifying exchange, sale, or wares sold, to be formed from the primitive *merc*, a mark, from the practice of marking goods for barter or sale.*

The *Mercury* of the Romans was evidently the same character as the Egyptian *Thoth*, *Thot* or *Taut* and the Grecian Ερμης, Hermes; although authors mention several personages under the same name. Gebelin alledges the Egyptian name *Thot*, *Taut*, to signify a sign or mark; and hence his character as the deity of letters. In the Celtic dialects, we find a word equally expressive of his character, from which this name may have originated; in Welch, *tavod*, in Armoric, *teaut*, the tongue. The first etymology makes this personage the god of *letters*; the last, the god of *speech*. *Thoth*, then, is *letters* or *speech* personified and deified. Hence his principal offices were to instruct men in the knowledge of letters and useful

* Bochart. Geog. Sac. lib. i. ca. 2, and De Phoen. lib. i. 42—Bryant, i. 338—Faber, i. 283—Cluver. Germ. Antiq. lib. i. ca. 9. 22, 23, 26—Gebelin, vol. i. Alleg. Orient. p. 43 and vol. iv. 57.

arts, and to act as the interpreter of the gods. His Greek name *Hermes*, from Ρημα, a *word*, *speech*, gives the same result.*

Hence we observe Mercury is the god of speech, of letters, and of commerce; or an imaginary being representing speech, trade, and mutual intercourse, by the use of language and letters.†

As in the Celtic language, *marc* or *merc* was a horse, it is not impossible that some of the ancients might mistake the origin of the name of Mercury, supposing the first syllable to signify a *horse*, and hence assign to this personage the character of a horseman, a messenger; and represent him as presiding over travellers. Cesar, in a passage hereafter cited, gives countenance to the opinion that this was the real origin of his name.

Dragon, draco, Bryant supposes to be an imaginary being, formed by mistaking *Tarchon*, a watch-tower, with lights, and writing it *trachon*. Faber says that the dragon of ancient mythology was merely a large serpent, and not an imaginary being.

Gebelin cites, from a fragment of Sanchoniathon, that Mercury taught that dragons "abondoient plus en esprits que tous les autres reptiles; qu'ils étoient d'une nature ignée; qu'ils se mouvoient avec la plus grand vitesse, quoique privés des organes communs à tous les autres animaux."----Dragons abound with spirits, more than other reptiles—they are of a *fiery* nature; they move with the greatest celerity, although not furnished with the organs common to all other animals.

* See Gebelin ut supra—Lhuyd. Arch. Brit. p. 80. Cicero, speaking of Mercury, and enumerating several of the name, says—"Quintus, quem colunt Pheneatae, qui et Argum dicitur interemisse, ob eamque causam, Ægyptum profugisse, atque Ægyptiis literas et leges tradidisse. Hunc Ægyptii *Thoth* appellant"....De Nat. Deor. iii. 22.

† The people of Lystra called Barnabas, Jupiter, and Paul, Mercury, because he was the chief *speaker*....Acts xiv. 12. See Bochart. Phoen. lib. i. 42, and the authors cited. Philo Byblius, from Sanchoniathon, says *Taaut* originated απο Μισωρ, from Misor or Egypt; and Plato in Philaebo, says *Thoth* invented a multitude of words.... See also a passage from the Abbe Caperan in the Oriental Collections, vol. ii. 404.

Neptune, says Bochart, was Japhet; for Japhet possessed the isles of the Gentiles, and the maritime countries. Faber thinks the word composed of *Nu-hiph-tanin*, which, according to him, signify the *Hippian-Fish-God*, or Noah, in allusion to the ark and deluge. Vallancey supposes this word to be compounded of the Celtic *naomh*, a saint or deity, and *tonn*, *tun*, a cistern, which would make Neptune very justly the god of the deep.

But *Neptune* derives his name from a primitive word, signifying water, whose derivatives are numerous in Europe, Asia and Africa; and even in America. It is seen in the Greek Νίπτω, to wash or lave; in the Arabic *nap*, to drink or satiate with drink; in the Hebrew נבע, to gush forth, as a spring; in the Arabic *nebet*, to gush or spring forth, as water; in the names of a multitude of rivers, as in *Nieper*, *Enipeus*, *Neva*, in Europe; in *Nuba*, a lake in Africa; in *Nieva* and *Niepa*, in Siberia; and in *nebbi*, *nepee*, or *nepei*, the common name of water in the dialects of the American Algonkins, Knisteneaux, and Chipeways. The ancient name of the Ladoga, a lake in Russia, was *Nebo;* and a river in Spain was formerly called *Nabius*, or *Navio*.

Neptune, the god of the ocean, is then a mere imaginary being, whose name is taken from the element over which he presided; that is, Neptune is the ocean personified. Gebelin supposes the last syllable of this name, to be the Celtic *tun* or *dun*, profound. *Neptun*, the profound water. This is probable; but of the first syllable, the basis of the word, there can be no doubt.*

The *Nereids* are creatures of fancy, whose name is composed of נהר nehr, a river, a name still retained in Oriental countries, and εἶδος, form, species. They were the daughters of *Nereus*, the ocean, or son of the ocean, whose name had the same origin. The same word still exists in the Indian *nara*, water, and *nere*, a wave.†

* For authorities under this head, see Bochart, lib. i. 1—Faber, i. 125—Gebelin, vol. i. Hist. de Sat. p. 71—Parkhurst, under the words mentioned—Strabo, lib. viii. 3. 32—Plin. lib. iv. 8, and vi. 7—Pausanias, lib. ix.—D'Anville, p. 610—Ludolf's Lex. col. 304—Carver's Travels, p. 403. Dublin, 1779—Mackenzie's Voyage, p. 105—Mela. iii. 1—Tooke's View of the Russian Empire, vol. i. 224, 226—Vallancey's Essay on the Celtic Language, p. 22.

† Hesiod's Theog. 233, 240—Asiat. Res. vol. vi. p. 530.

The *Sirens*, sea nymphs, whose melodious and fascinating strains arrested seamen, and made them forget their employment, were also beings of fiction, deriving their name from שׁיר, or שׁור, to sing.

The *dryads*, or nymphs of the woods, receive their name from a primitive appellation of a tree, and εἶδος, form, species. The root of this word is common to the Celtic, Teutonic, and Slavonian families of men—in Welch, *deru;* in Irish, *darach;* in Greek, δρυς; in Slavonic, *drevu;* in Saxon, *treow* or *treo*, whence we have *tree*. The Greeks appropriated the word to the *oak*, but primarily and generally, the word is an appellative of tree.*

Nymphs, another name of imaginary deities, which presided over rivers and fountains, is formed from a primitive word signifying water; the root of *Nemea*, a river near Corinth, and of *Niemen* in Poland. The radical word, *nam*, or *naum*, water, still exists in several dialects of the Burman empire.†

There were also nymphs of the mountains, called *orcades*, from ορος, a mountain. These were the companions of Diana, in hunting. Others, called *Napae*, from Νᾶπος, νᾶπη, a grove or declivity, presided over hills and dales.

The *Naiads*, from ναίω, to flow, or the root of this word, presided over springs and rivers.

The sea nymphs were called *Oceanides*, from *oceanus* and εἶδος, species, form.‡

Orpheus, the celebrated musician, who is said to have softened, by the melody of his notes, the ferocity of wild beasts, and arrested the current of rivers, is represented to have been the son of Apollo, and to have received a lyre from his father, or from Mercury. But the name of this imaginary being is formed of two Celtic words, *oir*, gold, and *fead*, a whistle—the golden whistle. In the same language, *Oirfid* is music, and *Oirfideach*, the gene-

* See Lempriere, and the Lexicons of the several languages, and Hesychius under δρυς. The name, in some languages, seems to have been applied to the *oak*, by way of distinction.

† Asiat. Res. vol. v. 228.

‡ Hesiod's Theog.----Ovid. Met. xiv. 328----Virg. Georg. iv. 341----Æn. i. 500----Homer's Odyssey, lib. v. 348. et seq.

ral name of a musician. *Orpheus* is merely a personification of music.*

Osiris, a celebrated king and deity of Egypt, is a person that makes a great figure in history, as well as in fable. Faber alledges that *in reality*, Osiris was the same as Cronus or Noah; and to prove the point, he adduces an etymology from the Hiberno-Celtic, on the authority of Vallancey, who informs us, that in that language, *Eiss-Aire*, signify the commander of a ship.†

Osiris is represented as having civilized his own subjects, giving them salutary laws and teaching them agriculture. Afterwards he resolved to visit other parts of the earth, to spread civilization, and actually accomplished his purpose. On his return, he found his brother Typhon had raised seditions in his kingdom. In this story we have perhaps a representation of the revolution of the sun, in his diurnal course, visiting all parts of the earth; and perhaps its visit to Ethiopia may allude to the winter season. The disorders raised by *Typhon*, or the god of *darkness*, may represent the evils of night or of winter.‡

Osiris was undoubtedly a primitive title of the sun, the object of worship among most ancient nations. The word, Parkhurst supposes, to be formed from the Hebrew עשר, to enrich. But, in this, as in a multitude of other cases, Hebricians have inverted the order of derivation; for in Hebrew, as well as in Arabic and Ethiopic, this verb is formed from the same word, signifying *ten*, and the verb signifies to *give tenths*, and thus *to enrich*. In the sense of *ten*, this word is probably formed on the root שר, to measure, or regulate, from the peculiar properties of that number.

The real origin of the name is in שר, to regulate, rule, direct, as the sun is the regulator of time. Or, more probably, in שר, brightness, splendor, to shine; whence our English *sear*. This word is also the root of *Sirius*,

* See the Lexicons of the Irish Celtic, Lhuyd's Archaeologia, and Focaloir, before cited.

† Faber, vol. i. 151, and vol. ii. 77.

‡ See Herod. Euterpe. 144----and the authorities cited by Lempriere, under *Osiris*.

the dog-star, as well as of the Indian *Surya*, which primarily denoted the sun; and of the Welch *Seren*, a star.

The wife of Osiris was Isis, and Sir William Jones supposes these characters to represent the powers of nature, considered as male and female. Now *Isis* is a Coptic word signifying the earth, still recognized in the word *isi*. As the sun, acting upon the earth, is the immediate parent of vegetable productions, it is not improbable that this circumstance gave rise to the fabled connection of Osiris and Isis.*

Pallas, was a name given to a giant, a son of Tartarus and Terra, who was killed by Minerva. The goddess covered herself with his *skin*, whence, as some suppose, she received her name, *Pallas*, pellis. This *Pallas*, the same as Minerva, was the daughter of Jupiter, and goddess of wisdom. There was also a *Pallas*, a son of Crius, who married the nymph Styx, by whom he had *victory* and *valor*. From these characteristics, as well as from the similitude of names, there can be little doubt that Pallas is a word formed from *pellis*, *pal*, *pell*, a skin, as shields were originally made of hides. Hence *Palladium*, a defense—the name given to the famous statue of Minerva, which protected Troy. The Gallans in Africa still make their shields of skins.†

Ogyges, is represented as the first monarch of Greece, in whose days Attica was laid waste by a deluge. He was the son of Terra or of Neptune. The root of this word is a primitive name of water—in Hiberno-Celtic, *oige* or *oice*; in Chaldaic, *oug*; in Ethiopic, *houg*; in the Livish, or Livonic, a dialect of Russia, *yogg*; in Latin, *aqua*; in Spanish, *agua*; in Portuguese, *agoa*; in Hebrew, אוק, the root of ocean. Hence the names of many rivers, as *oka*, *okka*, and others in the Russian dominions. To this word the Greeks added *gyges*, the name of one

* See Park. under the words mentioned, and Ludolf's Lexicon, Coll. 442—Asiat. Res. i. 253. Cluver, lib. i. ca. 27, cites the opinion of Macrobius. Saturn. i. 21. "Nec in occulto est, neque aliud esse Osirim, quam solem, nec Isin aliud esse quam terram." It is obvious that Osiris is nothing else than the sun, and Isis the earth.... See *Chamberlayne's Oratio Dominica*, p. 30.

† See Lempriere under *Pallas*, *Palladium*, and *Minerva*; and Ludolf's History of Ethiopia, b. i. ch. 16.

of the Titans, mentioned by Hesiod; but it is probably from the Arabic *gog*, to *expand*, and signifies *great*.—There was a lake in Lydia named *gygaeus*, and there was a deity in Caria, called *Ogoa*, under whose temple the sea was said to pass. Hence it is obvious, that *Ogyges* is a fabulous character, representing the deluge; or his history may have originated in traditions respecting the deluge, and the diluvian patriarch. In Ethiopic, *aig* or *aich*, is a deluge.*

Morpheus, the god of sleep, had his origin in a word still found in the Ethiopic *orf*, to rest, *morf*, a place of quiet—probably from the same root as the Hebrew ערב, and מערב, the evening, or time of rest.†

Cadmus, who is said to have introduced letters into Greece, is supposed to have received his name from the Hebrew word קדם, the east, as letters came from the east into Greece. This is doubtless a mere conjecture, and the history of Cadmus, a fable, formed from the signification of the word. The word is oriental, and still retained in the Persian, *Kadeem*, which signifies language. The root is seen in the Teutonic verb which we retain in *quoth*, that is, *quod* or *quot*, from the Saxon *cwethan*; in *quote*, from the French, and in the Latin *cito*. And from the same root the Irish branch of the Celtic has *ceadach*, talkative, and *ceadal*, a story or narration. The Welch, from the same root have *gueyd*, and the Irish *guth*, a voice or word.‡

There may have been a person, who, for his knowledge in languages, was denominated *Cadem*, whence the Greeks and Romans formed Cadmus; but it is not very probable.

Argus, derives his name from the root of *arch*, which signifies to *curve*, *bend*, or *wind*. Hence we have *arch*,

* Lempriere under *Gyges*, *Ogyges*, *Gygaeus*, and *Ogoa*—Orient. Coll. ii. 13—Lhuyd's Archaeologia, under *aqua*.—Paus. lib. ix. 5—Tooke's Russia, vol. i. 234, 270, 405.

† Ludolf's Lex. col. 446, 447—Parkhurst, under the word ערב.

‡ Orient. Coll. i. 385—Focaloir, under *Ceadach*. From this root, *Cead*, speech, the Celtic Irish formed their name of Wednesday, or Woden's day, *dies Mercurii*, which they call *Dia Ceaduin*, or *Dia Ceadaoine*, the day of the speaker, or of the god of speech....Focaloir under *Dia*.

both in the sense of a part of a circle, and in that of *cunning, subtle, sly.* This root is retained in the German, Dutch and Swedish *arg*, signifying cunning, arch, crafty, wicked, mischievous. It is a curious fact, that many words in our modern languages conveying the idea of *craft*, had their origin in the radical sense of *bending, curving, winding*—a sense well expressed by *insinuation.* Of this I shall give ample proofs in my Dictionary, should I live to execute the work. From *arg*, by transposition of letters, we have the English word *rogue;* and on this root the Celtic nations formed the Welch *drug*, the Irish *droch*, evil. The ancients, whose fancy embellished every object, gave to Argus a *hundred eyes*—a happy emblem of cunning. Hence we see that *Argus* is a mere personification of craft, or vigilance.—Cicero informs us that Argus was slain by Thoth; that is, craft was overcome by intelligence, or learning.*

Prometheus, a son of Japetus by Clymene, surpassed all men in fraud and cunning, and deceived Jupiter himself. According to Apollodarus, he *made the first man and woman* on earth, with clay, which he animated by means of fire, which he stole from heaven; and he *erected the first altar to the gods.* Bryant thinks him the same as Osiris or Dionusus, Noah, the great husbandman, the planter of the vine and inventor of the plow. Faber alledges Prometheus to be *Atlas*, or the helio-arkite Noah, from *Phra-ma-theus*, the great solar deity!!

But *Prometheus* is a compound of two primitive words, *brum*, or *broum*, who was fabled to be one of the Centaurs, and *aith, ait*, Chaldaic אש. Hebrew אש, fire, whence the Greek αἴθω, and the English *ashes* and *heat.* *Brum*, is the root of the Latin *primus*, and the Gothic *frum, fruma*, Saxon *frum*, first, beginning, origin; the Indian *Brumma*, and *Bramin.* The literal sense of the word is the *first fire.* Hence Juvenal uses the word Titan, the sun, as synonymous with *Prometheus.* Hence he is said to have animated the first man and woman, as heat is the principle of life; and hence, with great propriety, he

* Cicero. De Nat. Deor. lib. iii. 22....Ovid's Met. lib. 1 v. 720.

was supposed to have erected the first altar to the gods.*

Vulcan, is said by Faber to have been Noah, adored in conjunction with the sun. Bochart, and other authors, have supposed him to be the Tubal-Cain, mentioned in Gen. iv. 22. Bryant supposes him to be the sun, and his name to be formed from *Baal-cahen*, Baal the sacred. But *Vulcan* is a word formed on the Celtic *mole*, fire, the Moloch of the Scriptures, which may indeed have had its origin in *Bal*, *bel*, the sun.* The last syllable may be the Hebrew חן, חנ, labor, and if so, we have the exact interpretation of his name—a *worker in fire*. Bryant suggests, that the fable of Vulcan's ejection from heaven by Juno, relates to the overthrow of Babel, and the destruction of fire-worship. Cicero's orthography of this word, *Volcanus*, corresponds best with its etymology.†

Themis, a daughter of Coelus and Terra, was consulted as an oracle, in Attica, in the age of Deucalion. She was the mother of *Dice*, (δικη, justice) of Irene, (ειρηνη, peace) of Eunomia, (ευνομος, good laws) and of the Parcæ, or destinies. She is represented as holding a sword in one hand, and a pair of scales in the other, the emblems of justice still retained in use. This goddess derives her name from the Hebrew תמר, integrity, justice, of which she is a personification.‡

Anubis was an Egyptian deity, represented under the body of a man, with the head of a dog. He is supposed by some to be Mercury. This name in Ethiopic signifies a lion, and not improbably the resemblance between the animals may have led the ancient Greeks and Romans to mistake the Egyptian figure for a dog. His name is perhaps given to him for his growling sound; or if not, it bears such a resemblance to the oriental נב, *neb*, to ut-

* Bryant, vol. ii. 273, 4°.—Faber, i. 114.—Hesiod. Theog.—Paus. lib. ii. 14, and i. 30.—Virg. Ecl. v. 42. Ovid represents the son of Japetus as the creator of man.....*Metam.* v. 82.—Bromus, according to Ovid, was killed by Caenus.....*Met.* xii. 459.

† Faber, i. 157.—Bryant, vol. iii. 47.—Bochart. Geog. Sac. De Phoen. lib. i. 12.—Phaleg. lib. iii. 12.—Cicero. de Nat. Deor. lib. iii. 27.

‡ Ovid's Met. i. 321.

ter, that the ancients were led to suppose he was intended as a figure of Mercury.*

Dædalus, is a mere personification of daring confidence, from the Irish Celtic *deadla*, bold; *deadlas*, boldness.

In an attempt to develope the origin of the fabled deities of antiquity, it would be unjust to omit the goddesses, who make a conspicuous figure in mythology.

Minerva, is probably derived from the same radical word as *Minos*, *Mentor*, μαντις, μην, *mens*, as a predominant characteristic of the goddess is *wisdom*. The latter part of this compound is found in the Irish *earba*, labor; German, *arbeit*, Dutch, *arbeid*; Swedish, *arbete*, labor, work, employment. Hence *Minerva* is the *skilful laborer*, the goddess of manufactures.

Vesta, the goddess of fire, is derived from the oriental radical, *ast*, *asta*, *esta*, Hebrew אש, fire, from which the Greeks had their αιθω, to burn, and εστια, a hearth; the Latins their *asso*, to roast; and the English their *ashes*. From the supposed purifying effects of fire, this goddess became the patroness of the sacred fire, and of vestal virgins. The Hindoo deity *Agni*, whose name is from the same source as the Latin *ignis*, fire, has also the character of the *purifier*.†

Juno, the Hindoo *Yoni*, derived her name from the same root as the Greek their γυνη, woman, and she represents the generative powers of the species.‡

Diana, the goddess of hunting, is named from the Celtic word *dian*, which, in Irish, signifies swift, vehement. She is merely the representative of ardent boldness and celerity in the chase; qualities in high estimation among savage nations, who subsist chiefly upon the flesh of wild beasts. Hence the goddess is painted with a bow in her hand. Pausanias informs us that the Athenians had altars erected to shame, fame, and *impetuosity*.§

* Ovid's Met. ix. 689.—Virg. Æn. viii. 698. The word *neb*, we retain in *nib*, *nip*. From this root the Ethiopic has *nebeb*, or *nebab*, speech, and *nebia*, a prophet. The word radically signifies the *mouth*, and is found in the Celtic as well as the oriental languages.

† Park. p. 43, 44.—Asiat. Res. i. 263.

‡ Asiat. Res. iii. 364. § Pausan. lib. i. 17.

Venus, the goddess of love and beauty, is merely woman deified. Her name is a dialectical variation of the Celtic *bean*, woman; a word used in various languages; in Hebrew בן, beni; in Persian, *banou*, as *Ked banou*, mistress of the house; in Welsh, *benyn*, or *mennyn;* in Hindoostanee, *bhavana;* in Irish, *ben*, or *bean;* in Cornish, *banen;* in the old language of Beotia, according to Hesychius, *bana;* in Burma, *pooen*, or *paeyen;* in ancient Thrace, *bendis*, which seems to be a compound of *Bean* and *dis*, or *dia*, goddess. The Irish word for a goddess is *baindia*, *bean dea*, a woman deity.*

As Venus was the representative of the female part of our species, we need not be surprized at the number of her temples, and the extensiveness of her worship. And perhaps the moderns, who deride the absurdities of ancient mythology, may make some apology for the worship of this goddess; for if, in the present age, we do not see the ladies actually deified, and temples erected to their honor, we not unfrequently hear them addressed as angels; and if the lover's professions are to be credited, they are sometimes *adored.*

Of the Teutonic deities, *Dis*, or *Tis*, *Thor*, and *Woden*, make the most conspicuous figure. *Dis*, *Dia*, *Zeus*, *Theos*, *Deus*, is the sun or Jupiter. It is certain that the Latin *dies;* the English *day;* the Irish *dia*, God, and *dia*, *die*, day; Welsh *dydh;* Hindoostanee *dewus*, day, had their origin in the name of the sun or light; for in the oriental languages, *di* is bright, splendid. It is found, with various orthography, in most languages, and must therefore have been of most ancient use. Cluver supposes this to be the *Thoth* or *Taut*, of the Egyptians, of which I have not satisfactory evidence. But the word seems to be the basis of the name of the German deity *Tuisto*, or *Tuisco*, and of the name which the northern

* See the Lexicons of the Hebrew and Celtic languages—Mallet, North. Antiq. vol. i. 92—Asiat. Res. i. 254; iii. 387, 388. *Bhavana* seems to be a compound of *Bhava*, (Βιος,) life, and *vana*, Venus.... vol. v. 228.

This name of Venus, *ben*, *bean*, has been supposed to be the Celtic *ban*, white. I believe the word to have had a different origin; but the Greeks may have had such an opinion; and from this opinion may have sprung the fable of the birth of Venus from αφρος, froth, whence her Greek name Αφροδιτη. And hence perhaps the Latin *Venustas*, beauty.

nations bore, *Teutons;* as it certainly is of the word *Tuesday*, in Danish *Tiisday*, or *Tysday;* in Swedish *Tisdag*. It is no small confirmation of this opinion of the origin of *dia*, or *dis*, that the Germans call *Tuesday*, *dienstag*, using *tien*, *tan*, which signifies fire or the sun, in the place of *dis* or *dia*. They use also *dingsdag*, as do the Dutch, which is evidently a corruption of the same word.*

This deity the Gauls claimed as their common father, as we are informed by Cesar. "Galli se omnes ab Dite patre prognatos prædicant; idque ab Druidibus proditum dicunt."

But *Woden*, whose name in Danish is *Odin*, was claimed by the ancient Gothic tribes as the great leader who conducted them from Asia, and to him they paid particular honors. He answers to the Hermes of the Greeks, and the Mercury of the Romans, and his name is the basis of dies Mercurii, *Wednesday*, Wodnesday, in all the Teutonic dialects.

Faber supposes *Woden* to be Noah. That Woden is the same character which the Orientals venerate under the name of *Budha*, *Bod*, *Buddo*, *Budso*, seems to be generally agreed; and *Budha*, Bryant maintains, is the symbol of the Ark. Sir William Jones suspects him to have been the great Sesac, or Shishak.†

Whether this personage was Noah, or any other real person, we may never be able to determine with certainty, as no historical records which can be deemed authentic, now exist, of a date sufficiently ancient, to dissipate the obscurity which hangs over this subject. The Cashmirians boast of his descent in their country; and Sir William Jones has attempted to show, from the Hindoo books, that this deity and his worship were introduced into India from the west, about ten or eleven centuries before the Christian era.

To throw some light on the history of this character, we may observe that in Hindoostanee, as well as in the languages derived from the Sanscrit, *Budha* signifies

* Cluver, lib. i. 26.—Mallet's North. Antiq. ch. 4 and 5.

† Faber. i. 287, 299. and ii. 95.—Bryant, vol. iii. 553.—Asiat. Res. i. 425—vi. 257—vol. i. p. 8.

wise, wisdom, or a *wise man*, a *sage*, or *philosopher*. In this fact all the gentlemen who have written on the history and antiquities of India, coincide. The word is found in the Malayan and Cingalese languages, as well as in Sanscrit.*

This explanation of the name may help to elucidate the history of *Budha* and *Woden*. In the Welsh language, *guybod*, is to *know* or *understand*. In the Anglo-Saxon, the word is written *gebodian*, or *bodian*, to predict, to *bode;* and every person acquainted with the latter language, knows that a multitude of words were written with or without this prefix *ge*. In the Irish language, from the Celtic stock, the same word appears in *fodh*, knowledge, skill; in *fodach*, wise; in *faidh*, a prophet, from which the Latins formed their *vates*. This orthography *fodh*, comes nearest to the Chinese *Fo* or *Fohi*, whose character resembles that of *Budha*. We know that nothing is more common than this convertibility of the letters *B*, *F*, *V* and *W;* for the Latin *flo* and the English *blow*, are the same word, in different dialects—*vicus* is *wick*—Blow, is *vivo*, and the Irish *fodh*, knowledge, and the English *wot*, are radically one word. Hence *Woden*, in the Teutonic dialects, like *wot*, would be the natural orthography of *fodh*, *faidh*, *vates*. We then conclude, with a degree of probability, that *Woden* and *Budha* sprung from the same parent, and represented some man of distinguished wisdom, who was first admired and afterwards deified.†

Dr. Buchanan, who has written a treatise on the religion and literature of the Burman empire, inserted in the Asiatic Researches vol. vi. makes no question that *Budha*, is the *Bod* of the Arabians, the *Pout* of the Siamese, the *Boutta* of Clemens Alexandrinus, and the same as the *Godama* of the Burmans.

The Arabians formerly had an idol named *Wudd*, and not improbably the Persian lawgiver *Mahabad*, may have

* Asiat. Res. ii. 9—vol. iii. 40—vol. iv. 221—vol. vi. 257, 260—vol. vii. 33, 34, 397.

† In Welsh, *byd;* in Irish, *budh*, *boith;* in Cornish, *byt;* in Armoric, *bet* is the world: but tho some nations have called the universe or heaven, the deity, this does not seem to be the origin of Budha, which signifies a sage.

had his name from *maha*, great, and *bad*, Bode, Budha. As *Budha* was not the primitive deity of India, and as no such deity was worshipped by the Celts, we may perhaps infer that the primitive inhabitants of India, and the Celts of Europe, separated prior to the origin of this character and his worship. It will follow, then, that the Teutonic tribes and the later Hindoos, who worshipped Woden and Budha, were later branches of the great family, who migrated from one central spot, a few centuries later than the Celts and aboriginal Hindoos. The Celtic nations used the word *fodh*, or *bodh*, in its primitive sense of *wise* or *wisdom*, which sense it retains; but the character, who, for his distinction, was called the *wise*, might not have arisen, until the Celtic tribes had migrated from the east. It is not impossible, however, that the nations in the east and west may have had different persons, who, for their eminence, acquired this title, after they had separated from each other; for among most nations have similar characters arisen, like Zoroaster, Solon, and Lycurgus, who distinguished themselves by their superior wisdom.

Thor, the thunderer of the Teutonic tribes, Parkhurst supposes, derived his name from the Hebrew verb תור, to go round, whence תור, a turn or round; and that the radical sense is the *heavens in circulation*. If this is the root of the word, the name was assigned to heaven on account of its vaulted appearance. The word may equally well be derived from the Celtic *tor*, force, elevation, grandeur, the Hebrew תור, illustrious. Whatever may be the radical word or idea, it is certain that this is the root of the Celtic *taran*, thunder, from which, by corruption, the Greeks are supposed to have formed their κεραυνος. *Thor* answers to the Jupiter of the Greeks and Romans, the god of the air; and he is probably the deity mentioned by Cesar, under the name of "Jovem, imperium coelestium tenere."*

Bor, another deity of the north, is evidently the north wind, *boreas*, of which word *Bor* is the root.

* Mallet's North. Antiq. ch. vi.—Cesar. Comment. lib. vi. 14.—*Thor*, to correspond in etymology with Jove, must be formed by prefixing an article *T'* or *th* to *ar*, *aer*, *air*.

Loke, or *Loch*, the evil deity of the north, is darkness; being nothing more than the Celtic *loc*, or *loch*, black, dark, still seen in Irish, as well as in the Chaldee לכך, obscurity.*

Frea, (or *Frigga*) was the Venus of the north, and like this goddess, her name is the appellative of *woman*, still preserved in the Celtic and Teutonic languages; in Irish, *frag;* in Welch, *uraig;* in German, *frau;* in Dutch, *vrouw*. Gebelin supposes *Frea* and the Latin *Rhea*, to be the same, and derived from the Hebrew רעה, to feed or nourish—a verb found also in the Arabic and Ethiopic. This is indeed a very obvious derivation of *Rhea*, the earth; but as Faber thinks, *Frea* is more naturally deduced from פרה, to produce, to be fruitful, the root of *pario*, and the English *bear*.†

Gebelin, in another passage, deduces this word from ראה, to see, or inspect; from which root the Egyptians, by prefixing the article *ph*, formed *phre*, the sun.‡ And perhaps from the supposition of such an origin of the word, *Rhea* may have been believed to signify the moon.

But Rhea was undoubtedly intended to signify the earth; for Hesiod informs us that Rhea was the mother of Vesta, Ceres, Juno, Pluto, Neptune, and Jupiter, which represent fire, corn, the female powers of production, the regions of death, the ocean, and the atmosphere. The earth was considered as the parent and nurse of men, beasts and vegetables; the word *Rhea*, signifies parent and nurse; and hence the mother of Romulus and Remus was called *Rhea Sylvia*. And as the earth was considered by all the ancients, as the *mother*, the female parent of productions, she had a husband assigned to her, among the physical powers of nature. Thus *Isis*, the earth in Egypt, had Osiris, the sun, for a husband; Rhea, the earth in Greece and Rome, had for a husband,

* Orient. Coll. ii. 234—Mallet, ch. vi.

† Faber. i. 143.—Gebelin's Hist. of Hercules, vol. i. p. 203.—Mallet's North. Antiq. ch. vi.—Parkhurst & Ludolf's Lex.

‡ Gebelin, vol. iv. 42, 43.—The Celtic orthography *frag*, *uraig*, corresponds with *frigga;* the modern German and Dutch words correspond with *Rhea*.

Saturn, or time. In the same manner, *Ops*, another name of the earth, had Saturn for a husband.*

That this word *Rhea*, רע is the root of *Frea*, the Venus of the north, I will endeavor to prove, or at least to render probable, by citing an analagous fact, which shows how extensively the opinion, that the earth was the *mother* of all productions, prevailed in primitive ages, and which unfolds the origin of the word *mother*, in its different senses, which has hitherto been unexplained.

In a passage of Sanchoniathon, preserved by Eusebius, the historian informs us that in the creation of the world, the spirit, operating upon chaos, produced Μωτ, mōt, which the author explains by *mud*, a putrid mass of wet earth, from which were created intelligent animals, men, the sun, Vulcan, and his son Adam.†

Plutarch informs us that the Egyptians called Isis, *muth*, which signifies *mother*. Macrobius writes that Osiris is the sun, and Isis the earth. Jablonski and Kircher agree that *muth* is the surname of Isis. Tacitus informs us that the Germans worshipped *Herthum*, that is, *terram matrem*, mother earth.‡ The scriptures also inform us that man was made out of the dust or earth.

* Hesiod. Theog. *v.* 453.—Lempriere under *Rhea* and *Ops*.

† See the observations of Bochart on this passage of Sanchoniathon....Phœn. lib. ii. ca. 2. This author states, that in the beginning there was πνοη αερος ζοφωδους—a spirit of dark air, which he calls Χαος ερεβωδες, a chaos of Erebus or darkness. "And darkness was upon the face of the deep"....Gen. i. 2. All ancient authors seem to have had similar ideas. See Hesiod. Theog. *v.* 123.

Εκ χαεος δε ερεβος τε, μελαινα τε Νυξ εγενοντο.

From chaos sprung Erebus, and black night.

Says Sanchoniathon, εκ του αυτου συμπλοκης του πνευματος εγενετο μωτ; τουτο τινες Φασιν ιλυν, οι δε υδατωδους μιξεως σηψιν. From this connection of the spirit was produced *mōt*, which some call clay or slime, and others a putrid moist mixture.

‡ Plut. de Iside. Not having Plutarch to consult, I cite this passage from Cluver. Germ. Antiq. lib. i. ca. 27. See also Macrobius. Saturn. lib. i. ca. 21. Tacitus. de Mor. Germ. 40. The authorities of Jablonski, Kircher and Macrobius are cited at second hand. It has been already remarked that *Isi* is still in Coptic the name of the earth. And see Parkhurst under ישה.

This ancient Egyptian word *mot*, from the root *mo* or *muo*, water, from which the Greeks formed their μυδαω, the Latins their *madeo*, and the Welch their *muydo*, to wet or moisten, we retain almost unaltered in the English word *mud*, wet earth. And in conformity with the universal opinion of antiquity, that the earth was the parent of productions, nations have formed on this root, *mot*, *mud*, the words *matter* and *mother*—*matter*, the *material*, out of which things are formed—and *mother*, the female parent of beings. Hence the Greek ματηρ and ματηρ; the Latin *mater*; the Dutch *moeder*; the German *mutter*; the Swedish *moder*; and Irish *mathair*, a female parent. Hence the Latin *materies*, matter, material, that out of which any thing is formed. But what is remarkable, we retain the original sense of the word, that of a moist slimy substance, as in vinegar, in the English word *mother*; the Dutch *modder*, mud; the German *moder*, mud, mold; and in the Celtic Irish, *mathair*, gore, *matter*. Equally remarkable is it that the word *matter* retains the sense of *pus*.

This singular concurrence of facts demonstrates the truth of history, in regard to the opinions of men in early ages, concerning the origin of things; and in my apprehension, goes very far to prove the real existence of the Phenician historian, Sanchoniathon. It proves also the common origin of the Egyptian, Celtic and Teutonic languages; and accounts for the common origin of the goddess *Rhea* and the *Frea* of the north—the word which signified the *earth*, the parent of production, being applied to a *female* of the human race, in a like character.

Certain it is that the mythology of the Celtic and Teutonic nations, who were unquestionably the ancestors of the Greeks and Romans, was essentially the same, as that of their descendants in Greece and Italy. The names of their deities were, at least in many instances, different; but their characteristic powers and offices were the same. Of this fact we have full evidence in the brief account which Cesar has left, of the deities of Gaul:—"Deum maxime Mercurium colunt: hujus sunt plurima simulacra: hunc, omnium inventorem artium ferunt; hunc, viarum atque itinerum ducem: hunc ad

quæstus pecuniæ mercatusque habere vim maximam arbitrantur. Post hunc, Apollonem, et Martem, et Jovem, et Minervam. De his eandem ferè, quam reliquæ gentes, habent opinionem. Apollonem, morbos depellere; Minervam, operum atque artificiorum initia tradere; Jovem, imperium cœlestium tenere; Martem, bella regere."*

The deity they chiefly worship is Mercury; of him they have many statues or images; they consider him as the inventor of all the arts, the protector of roads and journeys, and believe him to possess a peculiar faculty of acquiring property by commerce. After him they revere Apollo, Mars, Jove, and Minerva. Concerning these deities, they entertain nearly the same opinions as other nations. They believe that Apollo drives away diseases; Minerva introduces the knowledge of arts and manufactures; Jove presides over the atmosphere or visible heavens; and Mars governs the affairs of war.

In this account of the origin of the pagan deities, I have some confidence, because it is very simple and natural; because it accords with the known taste and genius of man, whose imagination, especially in a rude unsettled state of society, is disposed to personify natural objects—and particularly, because the etymologies explain directly, and without any forced analogies, the principal characters and offices of the deities. The great source of error, among writers on this subject, has been, their reliance on the explanations or opinions of ancient authors, who wrote their accounts a thousand or fifteen hundred years after the origin of the deities, when the knowledge of the original signification of their names was lost, and when the ignorance and fancy of men had engendered innumerable fables on this subject, confounding the characters of the gods, and disguising the simple truth with a complicated and monstrous mass of fictions.

These etymologies prove further the antiquity of the Celtic races of men; as the names of the pagan deities are mostly found in their language. It is a fact yet susceptible of proof, that the ancestors of the inhabitants of the west of Europe were coeval with the first inhabitants

* De Bel. Gal. lib. vi. xiv.

of Syria and Egypt; and that they originally spoke one language.

I shall close this sketch of the history of Pagan Mythology, with some account of the origin of the name GOD, in German *Gott*.

In the ancient Persian, *Codai* signified *Lord*, or *seigneur*. Now we find in Hesiod a demi-god or giant, named *Cot*, Κοττος, *Cuthus*, who was one of the sons of Coelus and Terra.

> Αλλοι δ' αυ γαιης τε και ουρανου εξεγενοντο,
> Τρεις παιδες μεγαλοι και αδριμοι, ουκ ονομαστοι,
> Κοττος τε, Βριαρεως τε, Γυγης θ' υπερφιαλα τεκνα.—

There were born of Coelus and Terra, three sons, great, mighty, and of indescribable fame, Cottos, Briareus, and Gyges, an illustrious progeny.*

It is well known that Hesiod is the most ancient, or one of the most ancient of the Greek authors, whose works are now extant; and his placing *Cottos* among the fabled giants, indicates that this character was of the highest antiquity. We hear of the same character in Herodotus, the most ancient Greek historian. In speaking of the names given to the three great divisions of the earth, he says that many of the Greeks alledge *Asia* to have been named after Asia, the wife of Prometheus. But, he observes, the Lydians contradict this, and assert that Asia was so called from *Asias*, a son of *Cotys*, and grandson of *Manis*.†

This is a remarkable fact; for all ancient nations appear to have retained traditions respecting *Manis* or *Man*, the first of the human race; altho these traditions are somewhat confused.

From the veneration paid to this illustrious character, the name became a common title of princes in Persia, Armenia and Thrace, the very countries through which the Teutonic tribes can be distinctly traced in their migrations to the western parts of Europe. Livy mentions a *Cotys*, king of the Odrysians in Thrace, in the Consulship of P. Licinius and C. Cassius, in the sixth century of Rome. The same author mentions a *Cotto*, a Bastar-

* Hes. Theog. line 147.—Orient. Coll. i. 94.

† Herod. in Melpomene, ca. 45.

nian of distinction, in the Consulship of Quintus Fulvius and L. Manlius, in the same century.*

Strabo mentions *Cothus* among the names of distinction which were in use among the barbarians of Thrace.†

Tacitus, in the second book of his Annals, gives an account of *Cotys*, a king of Thrace, in the reign of Tiberius; the same prince to whom Ovid addressed a letter, while in exile at Tomos.‡

A prince of the same name is mentioned by Tacitus, in the reign of Claudius.

Tacitus also mentions a *Cotys*, a king of the lesser Armenia, about the middle of the first century of the Christian Era.§

In the reign of Augustus, a prince named *Cottius*, governed a country on the Alps; and a particular ridge of those mountains, under the name of *Cottian*, long preserved the history of the prince and his dominion.‖

Cluver informs us that the Persian name of the Supreme Being is *Chod;* but I question his inference that this is the *Thoth* of the Egyptians. I take the Persian *Chod*, to be the German and English *God;* the *Godama* or giant *Goda*, of the Burman Empire; and perhaps all the titles of princes before mentioned, were derived from a common source.¶

This word, without the Greek termination, *Cot*, *Chod*, *God*, or *Got*, seems clearly to have descended from the *Cothus* of Hesiod, or *Cuth.*

Dionysius, the geographer, in a passage cited by Pellutier, relates that the Phenicians called *Gadeira*, Gades, now Cadiz, *Gottinhus*, the house of *Goden.* The primitive inhabitants called it *Cotinusa*, the house or temple of *Cotys.***

* Liv. lib. xlii. 29---lib. xl. 57. † Strabo, lib. vii. ca. 7.

‡ Tacit. An. lib. ii. 64, 66----Ovid. Epis.

§ Tacit. An. lib. xi. 9----lib. xii. 18.

‖ Strabo, lib. iv. ca. 1---lib. v. ca. 1——D'Anville, vol. i. 55——See Lempriere under the word *Cotys*, and the authorities cited.

¶ Cluver's Germ. Antiq. lib. i. 26.

** Pelloutier. Hist. des Celtes. i. 15.

The Hindoo books mention *Cudha*, a distinguished legislator of antiquity, and *Khoda*, in India, is a name of God.*

Now we observe in the names of ancient Assyrian princes, a syllable which is evidently the same word; as in *Ched*orlaomer, Nebu*chod*nosor, Nebu*chad*nezzar. *Nebu*, signifies *high, elevated;* being the *Nebo*, a mountain, mentioned in the Scriptures, and the root of the Slavonic *Nebesi, Nebesech*, heaven. *Nezzar*, I take to be the Hebrew נצר, a guardian. The *omer*, in *Chedorlaomer*, is the Hebrew אמר, a word, a *command*, the root of the Turkish *Emir*, and the English *Amiral*, now *admiral;* a word preserved in the Wald*emar* and Cass*imir* of Northern Europe. *Nebuchadnezzar*, then, signifies the *high lord*, the *guardian;* and *Chedorlaomer* contains two words signifying *lord*, and *commander*.

Of the origin of this word *Cotys, chod, Khoda*, the following is the most probable account. In the Celtic language, *cuth*, signifies the *head*. This is the root of the Saxon *Cyth, Cyththe*, knowledge, science; *cythan*, to make known, to testify; and *cyther*, a witness. The Latin *testis*, a witness, is formed, by a like analogy, from a name still retained in the Italian *testa*, the *head*, also wit, judgment; which the French have contracted into *tête*.

This *cuth*, the head, is unquestionably the Hebrew קד, to bow the head, and the modern Turkish *Cadi*, a judge, whence the Spanish *alcaid*. The Mongolian Tartars retain the same root in their *Khodsha*, a sage, which seems to be a compound of *Chod* and *shah*, a prince.†

From the same root unquestionably was formed the Hebrew קדם, which, as a noun, signifies *priority, precedence*, and as a verb, *to go before, to precede*. By an easy analogy, it signifies also the *East*, the place of the rising sun. The same word, in like senses, is, in the Ethiopic language, *Kadem, to go before, to be first*—also *priority, beginning*.‡

From this word, I presume, the oriental nations receiv-

* Asiat. Res. ii. 32—Grellman on the Gipseys, p. 173.

† Tooke's Russian Empire, vol. i. 409.

‡ Ludolf's Lex. col. 214, 215.

ed the title of their *Godama*, or *Goda*, who is the deity of the Burman empire.

It should be added that the name *Goda* was used in the north of Europe, as the name of distinguished personages, when the Danes invaded England in the tenth century. In the Saxon Chronicle, a Danish Thane, of this name, is mentioned under the year 988.

The only doubt respecting this origin of the word *God*, arises from the common orthography of the Teutonic words, *good* and *God;* for in Saxon, the orthography is the same—*god;* and in Gothic, *goda* is good. The English word *good*, is generally supposed to be the Greek αγαθος, without the terminating article αγαθ; and Lye, in his Dictionary, remarks, that as the same word signifies *God* and *good*, so in Saxon, the same word signifies *man* and *evil*. Equally remarkable is it that the word *bog*, which, in the Slavonian languages is the name of the Deity, in the Amharic dialect of Ethiopia, signifies *good.**

The word *good* is very naturally deducible from the Hebrew עדן. Oden, or Eden, signifying *pleasure*, *delight*, the Greek ηδονη; for it was not unusual for the Orientals to pronounce the first letter of this word with *g*, *goden;* and this orthography corresponds with that of the word before cited, *Gottinhus*, the house of *Goden*.

These are the principal facts and authorities which I have found respecting the origin and history of the name under which Christians worship the Supreme Being.

Names are of little importance, if the ideas communicated by them are correctly understood. Yet it may be suggested, that in the translation of the Scriptures from the Hebrew, it might have been expedient to retain, in the version, the original word, JEHOVAH. This word, which is from the Hebrew verb, to *be*, to *exist*, and which imports *self-existence*, or, by way of eminence, *the Being*, the *universal existence*, is the most express-

* See Lye's Sax. and Goth. Dict. under *man*. Ludolf's Amh. Col. 43. Cluver's Germ. Antiq. i. 25. The *bog* of the Russians, and *bogo* or *bago*, of the Ethiopians, seems to be the root of *Bogud*, a prince who assisted Cassius in the war in Spain. "Paucis diebus, litteris Cassii acceptis, rex *Bogud*, cum copiis venit."....Hirt. Pansæ De Bel. Alex. 49.

ive term that can be found in any language, to describe the nature and character of the incomprehensible Creator, and Governor of the Universe. *Jehovah Aleim*, the Hebrew words which frequently occur in the sacred writings, denote the ALL-COMPREHENSIVE, SELF-EXISTENT BEING, the SOVEREIGN LORD of the UNIVERSE. They convey the most sublime ideas which the human mind can conceive, of transcendant essence, power and majesty; and no pious man can pronounce them, without feeling a sentiment of the deepest humility and reverence.

ERRATUM.

IN page 64, line 26, for *nivis*, read *nix*.

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